ASIATIC RESEARCHES

ASIATIC RESEARCHES

Comprising

HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES, THE ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE OF ASIA

Vol. The Seven

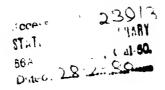
SET OF TWENTY TWO VOLUMES

"The bounds of its investigations will be the geographical limit of Asia, and within " limits its enquiries will be extended to whatever is performed up ... n or produced by Nature."

Sir William Jone.



COSMO PUBLICATIONS
NEW DELHI INDIA



First Published 1808
Reprinted 1979

Published by
Rani Kapoor (Mrs.)
Cosmo Publications
2. B., Ansari Road, Daryaganj
New-Delhi-110002

Printed at

Pearl Offset Press Kirti Nagar Industrial Area New Delhi-110015

TATE CENTRAL LIBRARY WEST BE GAL CALCUTTA

DESIDERATA.

CONTINUED FROM THE SIXTH VOLUME OF THE ASIATICK RESEARCHES.

I. An accurate Account of the Jews established on the Coast of *Malabar*, or in any other Part of *India*, of whatever Colour or Sect they may be.

Suggested by Professor BRUNS, of Helmstadt.

II. Historical Records, as far as can be obtained, of the Braminical Aristocracy in Malabar, which is said to have preceded the Reign, or Vice-royalty, of the Perumals; the Form of their political Constitution, its Commencement, and Duration; and the Laws by which the Inhabitants of Malabar were governed at that Period.

III. An authentic Account of the Conquest of Malabar by the Raja of Chaldesh, and its History

under the Vice-royalty of the Perumals.

IV. Is the Story of Shermaloo Permaloo, or Cheruma Perumal's Conversion to the Moosulman Faith, of his Journey to Arabia, and of the Division previously made by him of his Territory, well founded or otherwise; and what was the exact Period of those Events?

V. Who were the Chiefs among whom he divided his Country; and do any genealogical Records exist whereby the Descent of the present Rajas in Malabar,

from those Chiefs, may be traced?

VI.

VI. Wherein does the Ritual observed by the Malabar or the Nambooree Bruhmuns, differ from that prescribed to the Bruhmuns in other Parts of India?

VII. How many and what Descriptions of People inhabit the Peninsula of Malaya, from Mergui southward; and what are the Boundaries of their respective Possessions? What are their Lauguages, their Laws, and Manners, and their mutual Connexions with one another, in Peace or War?

(Proposed by Mr. MARSDEN.)

VIII. Do the Oriental Writings contain any Means of ascertaining the precise Meaning of the Words and Job and Job, (Keemu and Kuseel, Job axxviii. 31,) which our Translation renders the Pleiades and Orion?

(Proposed in compliance with the Request of an anonymous Correspondent, published in The Asiatic

Annual Register for 1799.)

IX. What is the Elevation, above the Level of the Sea, of the different Districts in *India*, as ascertained by Observations of the Barometer, deduced from the Course and Rapidity of the Rivers which pass through them, or from any other Data?

X. What are the Extent and Form of the Deltas formed by the principal Rivers in India? and in what Respects do their Inhabitants differ from those

of the more elevated and ancient Tracts?

XI. In what Districts has the Quantity of cultivated Land increased, or the reverse? and what permanent Changes of Climate have succeeded to the diminution or increase of Forest Land?

(The Three last taken from Considerations on the Objects of Researches into the Institutions and Antiquities of the Hindoos. By A. Maconochie, Esq.)

 $\Sigma \Pi$.

XII. Accounts of any particular Tribes or Societies of the Natives of India, whose peculiar Manners or Language may be worthy of Attention; such as the Uteets, Jogees, Ughorees, Charubroos, Kubeer-Punthees, Nagas, &c. &c.

XIII. A Detail of the extraodinary Process termed by the Natives, Musan Jugana, by which they

pretend to procure a familiar Spirit.

XIV. What is the present State of the Moosulman Hierarchy in India, with respect to Succession, and other Particulars; and how far are the Rank and Privileges of Peer, Moorshid, Wulee, Ghous, Qootub, Ubdal, &c. now real or imaginary?

XV. The same Inquiry relative to the Hindoos, and their Purohit, Gooroo, Purm Gooroo, Ucha-

rij, &c.

XVI. Statistical Accounts of any Districts in India, from actual Observation, or authentic Records.

XVII. An accurate Detail of the present State of any of the various Trades or Manufactures carried

on by the Natives of India.

XVIII. What are the Rules observed by Moosulmans relative to their Female Apartments; and who are the Persons under the Title of Muhrum admitted there?

XIX. An Account of the Mineral Springs in Ben-

gal.

XX. Do any Records exist of the Expulsion of the Boodhists from Hindoostan; or what Illustrations of that Event can be drawn from collateral Sources?

XXI. The Sanscrit Names of as many of the natural Productions of India as can be obtained.

XXII. An Account of Hindoo Systems of Astronomy, ancient or modern; with the Names of their Inventors; and a Comparison of them with the Systems that have obtained among the Chinese.

XXIII. Whether the historical Periods of the four Ages and Munwuntaras, mentioned in the Purans, did not depend on ancient astronomical Systems; and if so, what were the Duration and Times of Commencement of such Periods?

CONTENTS

OF THE SEVENTH VOLUME.

	PAGE
Desiderata	v
I. On the Course of the GANGES through BENGAL.	
By Major R. H. Colebrooke.	•
II. On SINGHALA, or CEYLON, and the DOCTRINES	
of BHOODDHA, from the Books of the SING-	
HALAIS. By Captain Mahony.	32
III. NARRATIVE of a ROUTE from CHUNARGHUR	•
to YERTNAGOODUM, in the ELLORE CIRCAR.	
By Captain J. T Blunt.	57
IV. An Account of a new Species of Delphinus,	4,
an Inhabitant of the GANGES. By Doctor Rox-	
burgh	170
V. Translation of one of the Inscriptions on the Pillar	•
at DEHLFE, called the Lat of FEEROZ SHAH.	
By Henry Colebrooke, Esq. with Introductory	
Remarks by Mr. Hanngton	175
VI. ACCOUNT of the KOOKIES or LUNCTAS. By	, ,
John Macrae, Esq. Communicated by J. H.	
Harington, Esq	183
VII. On the SANSCRIT and PRA'CRIT I ANGUAGES.	•
By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq	199
VIII. On the Religious Ceremonies of the HINDUS,	,,
and of the BRA'MENS especially. By H. T.	
Colebrooke, Esq. Essay II	232
IX. On the Religious Ceremonies of the HINDUS,	
and of the Bra'mens especially. By H. T.	
Colebrooke, Esq. Essay III	288
Y. An Account of a Method for extending a	
GFOGRAPHICAL SURVEY across the PENINSULA	
of India. By Brigade Major Lambton. Com-	
municated by Permission of the Right Honour-	
able the Governor of Fort St. George, in Coun-	
	312
cil. MI. On the Origin and Prouliar Teners of Cer-	
TAIN MUHAMMEDAN SECTS. By H. T. Cole-	
TAIN WUHAMMEDAN SECTOR By II. 2. Cont	- 336
Fronke, Esq. XII	
***	-

		PAGE
XII.		
	INGS of AVYAR, a Tamul Female Philosopher.	
	By the Reverend Dr. John.	343
XIII	. Account of the St. Thome' Christians on	
	the Coast of Malabar. By F. Wredé, Esq.	362
XIV	. Account of an hereditary living DEITY, to	•
	whom Devotion is paid by the BRA'MENS of	
	POONA and its Neighbourhood. By Captain	
	Edward Moor	381
XV.		30.
Αν.	of Ceylon. By Mr. Joinville	
3237 1		3 97
VVI.	Emperors, from Umeer Tymoor, to Alum-	
	GEER II. the Father of the present EMPEROR	
	SHAH ALUM, being from A. H. 736 to 1173,	
	or A. D. 1335 to 1760. By Lewis Ferdinand	
	Smith, Esq.	444
XVII	. DEMONSTRATION of the 12th Axiom of the first	
	Book of EUCLID. By the Reverend Paul Lim-	
	rick.	445
XVII	I. DAGOBERTI CAROLI DE DALDORFF SCATA-	
	bæorum (i. e. Insectorum, quæ sub nomine Ge-	
	neris superioris Scarabæus militaverunt in FA-	
	BRICII Entomologia Systematica em: et auct:)	
	distributio in genera proxima, (id est naturalia,)	
	divisiones, subdivisionesque, instrumentis ciba-	
	riis, lavorum imaginumq; victu et œconomia,	
	aliisque insecti perfecti partibus consultis. No. 1.	451
YIX	An Account of the Bazeegurs, a Sect com-	73-
211211	monly denominated Nurs. By Captain David	
	Richardson	451
XX.	On the BURMHA GAME of CHESS; compared	43*
AA.	with the Indian, Chinese, and Persian GAME of	
	the same Denomination. By the late Captain	
	Hiram Cox. Communicated in a Letter from	
		. 0 -
	him to J. H. Harington, Esq	48 0
Note	referred to in Page 484; and Corrections of pre-	
	vious Papers in this Volume; by H. Colebrooke,	
	Esq.	504
Membe	ers of the Asiatic Society, 1802.	505
APPE	NDIX.—Rules of the Asiatic Society	509

PUBLISHER'S NOTE

Asia is a vast and magnificent land with a magnificent heritage of civilization and a diversity of cultural strands and traditions. Yet the Asiatic Society, since its inception in 1784 took up this broad canvas for its investigations under the scholarly leadership of its founder Sir William Jones. Dilating on this point in the first annual discourse, Sir Jones declared, "if it be asked what are the intended objects of our enquiries within these spacious limits, we answer MAN and NATURE, whatever is performed by the one or produced by the other." These memorable words have since been paraphrased in the aims and objects of the Society as "The bounds of its investigation will be the geographical limits of Asia, and within these limits its enquiries will be extended to whatever is performed by Man or produce d by Nature."

Sir William Jones had for his colleagues a band of enthusiastic persons with scholarly bent of mind like Charles Wilkins, H. T. Colebrooke, William Chambers, H. H. Wilson, Sir John Shore, Jonathan Duncan and several others. Inspite of being stationed in Civil, Military and Judicial branches of administration, they evinced keen and abiding interest in unfolding the hidden treasures of Oriental learning, and thus laid a solid foundation of the science of Indology or Orientology, to be more precise. These illustrious scholars, undettered by handicaps, faithfully and zealously translated the objectives outlined by the founder in their literary and scientific tracts and

dissertations that they presented at the forum of the Society that provided an exciting new dimension to Asian studies. Sir Jones contemplated to publish these fruits of researches by the scholar-members in annual volumes for wider appreciation by the academic world, and the first volume of "ASIATIC RESEAR-CHES" came out under his own editorship in 1788, three years after the foundation of the Society. Sir Jones was the editor for the first six years i,e. upto 1794. Fourteen more volumes were published under the auspices of the Society upto 1839.

And now Cosmo Publications takes pride in bringing out this first authorised reprint of the "ASIATIC RESEARCHES" complete in 20 volumes. The wide range and variety of subjects dealt with in these volumes present a panoramic view of the civilization and culture of Asia in its different facets and in the different periods of history. There are no less than 367 essays, some amply illustrated in the series of 20 volumes. An analysis of subjects with a select list of names of the contributors, given below, will enlighten readers about their worth.

List of Subjects and Contributors:

HUMANITIES

1. Antiquities......30 articles.

Charles Wilkins, William Chambers, John Shore, William Jones, F. Wilford, H. T. Colebrooke, Jonathan Duncan, H.H. Wilson.

- 2. History31 articles.
 - F. Wilford, William Jones, A. Sterling, H.H. Wilson W. Hunter, J. Prinsep, John Crawford.

- 3. Language & Literature.....37 articles. W. Jones, W. Marsden, H.T. Colebrooke, F. Balfour, J. Leyden, B.H. Hodgson, A. Csoma de Koros. 4. Religion, Manners. Customs and Music... . . 47 articles. W. Jones, H. Vansittart, H. Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, J. Duncan, J. D. Patterson, J. Leyden, W. Carey, John Crawford, H. H. Wilson, B. H. Hodgson, Capt. James Low. 5. Coins Weights & Measures...3 articles. H. T. Colebrook, Jonathan Duncan, William Jones, F Balfour. SCIENTIFIC 1. Mathematical & Physical Sciences 67 articles. T. D. Pearse, R. Burrow, W. Jones, F. Balfour, John Playfair, R.H. Colebrooke, W. Hunter, F. Wilford, W. Lambton, J. Bentley, H.T. Colebrooke, J.D. Herbert, J. Prinsep, G. Everest. H.W. Voysey, J.D. Herbert, P.T. Cautley, H. Piddington. J.G. Gerard, James Prinsep.

- 5. Geography24 articles.
 - S. Turner, R. H. Colebrooke, W. Hunter, J. T. Blunt, W. Lambton, A. Sterling, J.D. Herbert, R. Wilcox, B.H. Hodgson.
- 6. Ethnography......16 articles.

W. Jones, J. Rawlins, J. Eliot, J. Crisp, R. Wilcox, W. Hunter, J. Prinsep, William Chambers.

Chemistry.....2 articles.

J. Prinsep.

8. Economic & Statistics......29 articles.

W. Hunter, Col. Polier, H. T. Prinsep, J. Prinsep, Dr. Voysey, J.F. Royale.

TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

ASIATICK SOCIETY.

Ì.

ON THE

Course of the GANGES through BENGAL.

BY MAJOR R. H. COLEBROOKE.

Ganges, and of other rivers which flow through Bengal, have been a subject of wonder to the generality of Europeans residing in these provinces; although to the natives, who have long witnessed such thanges, the most remarkable encroachments of the rivers, and deviations of their streams, are productive of little surprise.

It is chiefly during the periodical floods, or while the waters are draining off, that the greatest mischief is done; and if it be considered, that at the distance of two hundred miles from the Sea, there is a difference Vol. VII. of more then twenty-five feet* in the perpendicular beight of the waters at this season, while at the outlets of the rivers (excepting the effect of the tides) they preserve nearly the same level at all seasons, some idea may be formed of the increased velocity with which the water will run off, and of the havoc which it will make on the banks. Accordingly, it is not unusual to find, when the rainy season is over, large portions of the bank sunk into the channel; nay, even whole fields and plantations have been sometimes destroyed; and trees, which, with the growth of a century, had acquired strength to resist the most violent storms, have been suddenly undermined, and hurled into the stream.

The encroachments, however, are as often carried on gradually, and that partly in the dry season; at which time the natives have leisure to remove their effects, and change the sites of their dwellings, if too near the steep and crumbling banks. I have seen whole villages thus deserted, the inhabitants of which had rebuilt their huts on safer spots inland, or had removed entirely to some neighbouring village or town.† Along the banks of the Ganges, where the depredations of the stream are greatest, the people are so accustomed to such removals, that they build their huts with such light materials only, as they can, upon emergency, carry off with case; and a brick or mud wall is scarcely ever to be met with in such situations.

THE

This subject has already employed the pen of Major Rennell: See his Account of the Ganges and Burrampooter Rivers, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1781; also republished in his Memoir of a Map of Hindostan: but it is presumed, nevertheless, that any additional remarks, or detail of facts, relating to so curious a subject, will not be thought superfluous, nor uninteresting.

f The Topography (I might almost say the Geography) of a large portion of the country, will be liable to perpetual fluctuation from this cause: as the face of the country is not only altered by the rivers, but the villages are sometimes removed from one side to the other; some are completely destroyed, and new villages are continually rising up in other spots.

THE unsettled state of the rivers in Bengal may be attributed also, in a great measure, to the looseness of the foil through which they flow: but the destructive operation which Nature continually carries on in this way, is in some degree compensated by her bounty in forming new lands, either by alluvions on the opposite shore, or by islands, which rise up in the middle of the stream, and ultimately become connected with the main land, by the closing up of one of the channels. If this happens on the fide where the encroachment was made, the whole force of the stream is diverted into the opposite channel, and the further progress of the river on that side is stopped. But if, on the contrary, the junction is formed on the shelving fide, a much greater encroachment will take place, in consequence of the additional quantity of water which is thrown into the larger channel; and thus the river will continue to undermine and fweep away the bank, until a fimilar accident, or fome other cause, obliges it to reassume a more direct course: but I have never known an instance where the inflection in the course of the Ganges has been so great as it may commonly be observed in the smaller rivers, nor do I think it possible that in a stream of such magnitude it should ever be so.

As every current of water will quickly deposit the particles of earth, or fand, which in its course it has detached from the sides, or raked up from the bottom of its bed, so we find considerable shoals, and sandbanks, in most rivers; but particularly in such as slow through a loose and sandy soil: accordingly the Ganges gives birth to numerous islands, which are mostly of an extent proportioned to its wast bulk. Having had opportunities of observing these islands, in almost every stage of their growth, I have been astonished at the rapidity with which they have sometimes been thrown up, and at the magnitude to which they have ultimately swelled.

NET

WHEN the inundation is gone off, and the river has fubfided to its ordinary level in the dry feafon, confiderable fand-banks are frequently found in places where, but the preceding year, the channel had been deep, and perfectly navigable. These gatherings of fand are sometimes so considerable, as to divert the principal stream into a new, and, in general, a more direct course; for it is only by the encroachments on the bank that inflections in the stream are produced while the sudden alluvions, and frequent depositions of fand, have a tendenc of fill up the channel into which it had been diverted, and to restore the straightness of its course. Such of the islands as are found, on their first appearance, to have any soil, are immediately cultivated; and water melons, cucumbers, and furfoo, or mustard, become the produce of the first year. It is not uncommon even to see rice growing in those parts where a quantity of mud has been deposited near the water's edge.

Some of these islands, before they have acquired a degree of fability which might enable them to refist the force of the stream, are entirely swept away; but whenfoever, by the repeated additions of foil, they appear to be sufficiently firm, the natives then no longer hesitate to take possession of them, and the new lands become an immediate subject of altercation and dispute. The new settlers bring over their families, cattle, and effects; and having selected the highest spots for the sites of their villages, they erect their dwellings with as much confidence as they would do on the main land; for, although fixed upon a fandy foundation, the stratum of soil which is uppermost, being interwoven with the roots of grass, and of other plants, and hardened by the sun, becomes at length sufficiently firm to resist the future attacks of the river. Thus strengthened and matured, these islands will continue a number of years, and may last during

during the lives of most of the new possessors; as they are, in general, liable to destruction, only by the same gradual process of undermining, and encroachment, to which the banks of the river are subject.

When an island becomes so large, that it is not found practicable to cultivate the whole, which happens in those parts of the country where the people are either less numerous, or have no immediate inducement to take possession of the new land, it is soon overrun with reeds, long grass, jow,* and baubul,+ which form extensive, and almost impenetrable, thickets, affording shelter to tigers, buffaloes, deer, and other wild animals. The rest of the lands, in general, produce good pasturage; and many thoufands of oxen are bred and nourished upon them. The tigers commit frequent depredations among the herds, but are feldom known to carry off any of the people. The fertility of the foil increasing with every subsequent inundation, to which the burning of the reeds and grass, in the dry season, greatly contributes, induces the inhabitants, at length, to extend the limits of their cultivation, and to fettle more permanently upon them.

The illands of the Ganges are distinguishable from the main land, by their having sew or no trees, even long after a communication has been formed by the closing up of one of the channels, which, indeed, generally happens in a sew years. The island called Dera Khowaspour, which is one of the largest, has continued longer in an insulated state than any other I know; which may be attributed to its peculiar situation, immediately below the confluence of the Ganges and Coosa rivers; the channel of the former running chiesly on the south side; while the stream that issues from the latter, has a tendency to keep open the channel on the north side. It is probable that this

Tamarix Indica.

is dent from its appearance, has been thrown up in the manner above described, and was not originally a part of the main land. It is $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ across in the broadest part, and contains about 20 square niles of land, mostly cultivated, and highly productive, with several villages. I was informed, that in the highest floods, the people are obliged to erect temporary huts, on pillars of wood, or slages; but that it is seldom they are reduced to that necessity. To the S. W. of Dera Khowaspour is another island of less dimensions, and entirely overrun with jow. The passage between is navigable, as a great part of the waters of the Coofa flow through it.

THE appearance of some of these islands is singularly rural and pleafing, if not altogether romantic: for, although an extensive flat can hardly come under the latter denomination, yet it may partake of a degree of wildness, that will please the lovers of nature; at the same time, that the peaceful appearance of the flocks, fields, and habitations, will give delight to the philanthropist. If we prefent to our imaginations a wide extended plain, with pens for cuttle, and a few humble huts, whose tops are crowned with gourds, and the intervening space highly cultivated; suppose wheat, barley, and pulle of all forts, to be growing in abundance, the flowers of the latter prefenting to the eye a variety of rich tints; let us conceive numerous herds of cattle to be grazing, and a few scattered villages at a distance; suppose the horizon to bound the view, with no other remote objects than a long line of grass jungle, and a sew trees, which, from their great diffance on the main land, are barely difcernible; and we shall have a tolerable picture of an island in the Ganges. If we fancy, at the same time, that the lark is foaring, the air cool, and the sky perfectly unclouded, we shall have a still more lively idea of the state of these islands during at least six months of the year.

THROUGH BENGAL.

THE banks of the Ganges exhibit a variety of appearances, according to the nature of the foil, or the degree of force with which the current strikes against them. In those parts where the velocity of the stream is greatest, and the soil extremely loose, they become as perpendicular as a wall, and crumble in fo frequently, that it is dangerous to approach them. The bank is oftentimes excavated into a number of deep bays, with projecting points between them, round which the current rushes with great rapidity; but is confiderably flackened, and has even a retrograde motion, in the interior part of the gulph.* Some of these afford convenient landing-places, or gauts, where the natives perform their ablutions, water their cattle, and fasten their boats to the shore. In other parts, where the current is flack, the bank is generally found floping and firm. In the higher parts of the country, where a conkert foil prevails, the banks of the Ganges are not fo liable to be undermined, and are even sufficiently firm to reall the utmost efforts of the stream; but in Bengal there are few places where a town, or village, can be established on the Ganges, with any certainty of long actaining the advantage of fuch a fituation, as it will be liable either to be deflroyed by the river, or, on the contrary, to be totally abandoned by it. There are fome spots, however, which are not subject to the former inconvenience, and here the fites of fome principal places, and manufacturing towns, have been chablished; as Godagary, Comerpour, Beauleah, and Surdah, built upon a ridge of high ground running along the N. E.

*These little bays, or gulphs, are very common in all the rivers of Bengal, and are owing, probably, to the unequal encroachment of the stream on the banks in those places where the soil has the least tenacity. They naturally produce a whirling motion in the current; and may possibly, in some instances, be the means of checking the further encroachment of the river, but I have never known an instance of their striking out into new branches, is Major Reinell has supposed.

+ A hard reddish calcureous cardle.

fide of the Ganges, and which appears to be the extreme boundary of the river on that fide. The foil of this ridge is a stiff clay, intermixed with conker. It is probable, indeed, that the high ground on which the ancient city of Gour formerly stood, is a continuation of the same ridge, interrupted only by the course of the Mahanuddee River.

Alone the S. W. bank of the Ganges, from Oudanullah to Horrisonker, and perhaps considerably surther to the eastward, not a place occurs that can be said to be permanently fixed. Bogwangola, which is a considerable mart for grain, and from which the city of Moorshudabad is principally supplied, exhibits more the appearance of a temporary sair, or encampment, than that of a town. It has, more than once, been removed, in consequence of the encroachment, and subsequent retiring of the river; upon whose banks, for the convenience of water carriage, and boat building, it has been always found expedient to deep it.

THE Ganges, as I have hinted above, differs from the finaller rivers, in this particular, that its windings are never to attricate; for let the encroachment. which is the principal cause of the inflection in its course, be carried on during any number of years, it will ultimately be stopped by the island which grows up opposite to the side encroached on, and which, fooner or later, will form a junction with the main land. The upper point of the island which divides the stream, does, by retarding its velocity, and obliging it to deposit the particles of earth and fand with which it is impregnated, quickly gather fresh matter, and shoot upwards; while the nearest shelving point above it, either continues stationary, or advances to meet it. Thus the intermediate channel is gradually straitened, and less water slows through it; at the same time that the increasing shallowness of the passage impedes the current, and causes a still greater precipitation of fand.

The channel being, at length, completely choaked up, will, in the hot season, be left dry; when the whole stream being diverted into the opposite channel, and glancing along the side of the new-formed isthmus, will soon, provided the river continues to fall, form a steep ridge. This, however, will be over-flowed again, and may, for a time, afford a passage in the rainy season; but it will ultimately rise up into a formidable bank, and effectually close the passage. The lower part of the channel, however, forms a creek, in which a considerable depth of water will remain for some time; but which receiving a fresh supply of matter on every ensuing slood, will be gradually filled up.

The survey of part of the Ganges, on which I was deputed in 1796, gave me an opportunity of ascertaining the most remarkable changes which had occurred since the former charts were constructed; the following detail of which, aided by an inspection of the accompanying map, will, it is hoped, be sufficient to illustrate and constrin the truth of the foregoing remarks.

NEAR Scoty, the great river had encroached to within a mile of that place; the diffance, according to the old maps, having formerly been five miles; and by the reports of the oldest inhabitants of the neighbouring villages, it was in their remembrance, about forty years ago, reckoned four coss. The narrow ilthmus between it and the Collimbazar river, was gradually becoming lefs; and, notwithstanding the old passage by Saddy junge, had, in a most extraordinary manner, been eloted up by a mound of fund, yet there was fome appearance that a new channel of communication would be formed, by the river breaking through the neck of land; the encroachment fill continuing, they faid, at the rate of an hundred yards every year. is possible, however, that the encroachment may be flopped by the diversion of the principal stream into another channels as an island of confiderable extent

has grown up opposite to the side encroached on, and may, in time, form a junction with the main land above it, in the manner I have already pointed out. Should this take place, the river, which now runs in a south-westerly direction from Turtipour towards Sooly, will resume a direction more analogous to the general line of its course through Bengal; and the land which it has carried away, by encroaching on its western bank, will be gradually restored.

The alteration which appeared in the great river near the inlet of the Baugrutty, or Coffimbazar river, at Mohungunge, was no lefs confpicuous; the main stream having receded considerably from that place within my remembrance, and a large island having been thrown up, which is already cultivated and inhabited. The river was encroaching on its Eastern bank, and appeared to be gaining ground again towards Gour; the walls of which city, it is well attested, were

formerly washed by the Ganges.

Another confiderable gathering of islands had taken place between Raj make and Oodanullah; and the principal fricant which, by the maps, would appear to have the formerly close to the latter place, was not, at the time of this furvey, nearer than 2! miles. The island nearest to Ocdanullah was separated only from the main bank by a narrow branch, which was then fordable, and which extended to a considerable distance both above and below that place. This island was only custivated in part, the rest of the lands being over-run with a time. Ingl., in which I was informed were deer, with horz, busharoes, and tigers.*

 $\Lambda \tau$

^{&#}x27;Here I brought to, and pitched a tent, to observe an eclipse of the moon, on the 1 th of December, 1790. I had occasion also to traverse a part of the island. The hills which were in view, diversified the pacpect, while the tailing hells of the cattle returning to their perce, and accorded day, had a rural and pleasing effect. The screenity and awful stillness of the ensuing might, which was interrepted only by the wild notes and calls of various birds in the neighborring thickets, contributed altogether to render this place one of the next angular and remainter abode, which I can well remember.

AT Rajemall, the projecting point on which the ruins of the ancient palace and buildings are seen, has for many years resisted the force of the current; and the mally piles of masonry, some of which have substituted into the channel, have co-operated with the natural strength of the bank, in repelling the efforts of the stream.

THE Rajemahl Hills, from which feveral rocky points project into the Ganges, as at Sterygully, Painty, and Pattergotta, have for ages opposed the encroachments of the river; notwithstanding which, it has more than once excavated all the loofe foil which lay between the projecting points. This, however, has been as often reflored by the alluvions, and islands, which have grown up, and ultimately formed a junction with the bank.

The alteration of the river at Colgrong, may be reckoned among the most extraordinary which have ever been observed in the Ganges; and of this I can speak with greater confidence, if pollable, than of those abovementioned, having been an even withers of the flate of the river at this place at four feveral periods, in three of which I observed a confiderable distriction, viz. in the div teafons of 1779, 1788, and 1796-7. I have a drawing of Colgogo, taken by mylell at the former of these periods, which repretents the river to be a broad and open flicam, and free from finallows; at the fame time, although the three rocks near Celgong do not come into the view, yet I can remember that they were furrounded by dry land, and appeared to be at fome httle diftance from the flore. This is confirmed by the old map, only that the Boguetore Nulla is represented as paffing between the rocks and the town. In lanuary, 1788, I found the three rocks completely infulated. and the current is along between them with great rapidity; the tiver having undermined and borne away the whole of the foil which had for many years adhered to them, and having to and a bed for ifelf, with a confiderable depth of successible continued for feveral years to be the principal, and indeed the only navigable channel of the river in the dry season. Here boats were frequently in imminent danger of striking against the rocks, as during the period of the river's encroachment, and particularly in the rains, it was difficult to avoid them when coming down with the stream. While the river continued thus to expand itfelf, an island was growing up in the middle of its bed. which, when I last saw it, (in January, 1797,) extended from near Pattergotta, 5 miles below Colgong, to a confiderable distance above the latter place, being all together 8 miles in length, and 2 in breadth; and filling nearly the whole space which had been occupied by the principal stream in the year 1779. The quantity of fand, and foil, which the river must have deposited to effect this, will appear prodigious, if it be confidered, that the depth of water in the navigable part of the Ganges is frequently upwards of 70 feet; and the new islands had risen to more than 20 feet above the level of the stream. Again, the quantity of earth which it had excavated in forming a new channel for itself, will appear no less astonishing: some idea of this may, however, be conceived, from the foundings which I caused to be taken near the rocks, which varied from 70 to 90 feet. If we add 24 feet for the height of the foil that had formerly adhered to these rocks, as indicated by the marks it had left, it will appear that a column of 114 feet of earth had here been removed by the stream.* The encroachment of the river had, however, been ultimately stopped by the refistance it met with from a hard conker bank to the fouth eastward of these rocks, and by the encreasing growth of the island, which had straitened the upper part of the channel, and caused it to be choaked with fand. Accordingly, in January, 1797, this channel refembled more a stagnated creek than the branch of a great river; and, notwith anding the great depth of water which remained in some parts, it was at its up-DCI

^{*} See Plate I, and the Section in Plate II.

per inlet unnavigable for the smallest boats. The main stream had been diverted into the opposite channel, on the N. W. side of the island; so that boats, on their way up and down the river, did not, at this time, pass nearer to Colgong than $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The whole length of the channel which had been thus rendered in a great measure unnavigable, exceeded 10 miles; and I have little double but in a few years it will be impassable even in the rains.

Thus the Ganges, which for many years had flowed in a full stream by Colgong, may be said now to have deserted that place. The new island, which has been the principal cause of this diversion of the stream, is hitherto but partially inhabited and cultivated, the greatest part of it being overrun with reeds and tamarisk. The old channel exhibited a striking contrast to the appearance it formerly had, as not a single boat was to be seen; and the slender stream which slowed in at its upper inlet, not having power to communicate any visible motion to the vast body of water which remained in the lower part of the channel, it appeared, of course, as still as a lake, or a pond; and a great part of the main bank, which had formerly been in a crumbling state, had now become sloping and sirm.

Being enabled, on my return from Colgong, to complete the survey of the river down to Horrisonker, I found it, throughout a course of 160 miles, to differ widely from the old charts in almost every part: but having already mentioned the most remarkable changes which had occurred from Sooty upwards, it remains only now to give an account of such as I observed below that place.

This is a usual effect of the stagnation of water in all rivers; for as the current which bears upon a bank has a tendency to sap and undermine it, and to render it steep, so when this cause no longer exists, the bank will gradually recover that degree of inclination which is natural to the margins of lakes, or of stagnated pools. The upper part of the bank being moistened by the rains, crumbles in; and if the current be not sufficiently strong to bear it away, will gradually subside at an angle of 43 degrees, and fill up a part of the channel.

The main stream of the Ganges which now parts near Sooty, runs in a south-easterly direction, from thence towards Comrah, and Gobindpour, the latter of which is close on its bank. The villages of Saddagunge, Bingnagur, Ban/barya, Burrumtola, Narrainpour, Sicollypour, and Soondery, no longer existed according to the positions which were ascribed to them in the old maps,* some having been entirely destroyed, and others re-established, under the same or different names, across the river, and partly upon the new-formed island of Sundeepa.*

The quantity of land which has been here destroyed by the river, in the course of a sew years, will amount; upon the most moderate calculation, to 40 square miles, or 25,600 acres; but this is counterbalanced, in a great measure, by the alluvion which has taken place on the opposite shore, and by the new island of Sundeepa, which last alone contains upwards of 10 square miles.

The main fream of the Ganges, which, by Major Rennell's map, appears to have passed within a mile and a half of Nabobgunge, is now removed to a considerable distance from that place; and the channel from thence almost down to Godagary, having been a good deal contracted, in consequence of the diversion of the stream to the southward of Nilcontpour Island, is now considered as the continuation and outlet of the Mahamuddee river. The inslection in the course of the Ganges produced by the encroachment towards Sooty, Comrah, and Gobindpour, has encreased the distance by water from Turtipour to Godagary, in the dry season, to 26 miles; whereas by the maps it appears to have been formerly little more than 18.

Tit

[.] See Major Rennell's Map of the Cossimbasar Island.

⁺ See the Plan which accompanies this Memoir.

The principal branch of the Ganges beyond Gobirdpour, now runs E. and E. by N. and turning pretty sharply round the point which is opposite to the present outlet of the Mahanuddee, runs in a due southern course by Sultangunge, and Godagary, as far as Bogwangola; which town, as I have hinted above, has been always liable to shift its situation. My survey ascertains it to be $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles nearer to Moorshudabad than it formerly stood; but of this a more precise idea may be formed, by comparing its present bearings and distance from Godagary, and Bomeneah, with those which may be deduced from Major Rennell's map of the Cossimbazar island.

	Bearing.	Die. in Miles.
Godagary to Bogwangola, by Survey (1797)	S. 2 1	
Ditto to Ditto, by former Surveys	S. 36]	
Bomeneah to Bogwangola, by Survey (1797)	N. 21 1	E. 6
Ditto to Ditto, by former Surveys,	N. 50 I	E. 9½

FROM Bogwangola the river turns to the eastward, and the stream strikes with peculiar force upon a steep and crumbling bank, which indicates that the encroachment is still carried on rapidly below that place. The appearance of this bank was such as I scarcely remembered to have seen; and it would have been dangerous to approach it in some parts, as the fragments which were, every now and then, detached from it. would have been sufficient to fink the largest boat. In dropping down with the stream, which ran at the rate of near 6 miles in the hour, I could very fensibly feel the undulations which the huge portions of the falling bank produced in the water, at the distance of upwards of a hundred yards; and the noise with which they were accompanied, might be compared to the distant rumbling of artillery, or thunder. I am convinced, that had any boat attempted to track up under this

bank at that time; it would have met with inevitable destruction.*

The encroachment of the river in this part of its course has destroyed a considerable portion of arabic land; and has been the cause, likewise, of the removal, or destruction, of the villages of Banchdaw, Continagur; Chandabad, Kistnagur, and probably of many others which were not inserted in the old maps. The village of Sangarpour, formerly $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the nearest reach of the Ganges, is now close to its bank; and here the river appears to occupy a part of the track which Major Rennell calls the 6 Old Course of the Ganges."

From hence the stream runs E. N. E. as far as Allypour, at which place, I was informed by the Zemeendar, that in his remembrance, upwards of twenty villages had been destroyed by the river, and that the people had mostly settled on the new islands which within these sew years had been forming opposite to his village. Indeed, the gathering of islands, which I had observed from Burgotchy down to this place, appeared prodigious; yet not a single tree was to be seen on any of them; and from the colour of the thatched huts, it appeared plainly that some of the villages had been recently established.

The inlet to the Culcully river, which had formerly been at Bogwangola, is now removed several miles lower down. This has been a necessary consequence of the Ganges sweeping away all the land on each side of

^{*} Since my return from the survey, I have been informed of the loss of several boats under this bank; which accidents have been owing probably to the imprudence of the boat-men, in not tracking on the shelving side. This, however, when there is not a clean shelving sand, is attended with difficulty, and in general with delay, which induces the boat-men sometimes to prefer the steep side, although at the risk of being overwhelmed, and crushed by the falling bank.

of it is a confiderable extent, and the present entrance of the Calcully is near Murcha. This little river is become the thoroughfare for all boats passing from or to the Ganges by the Jellinghy, the old communication between them being now entirely shut up.

The main branch of the Ganges runs N. E. by E. to about four miles below Allypour; whence turning E. and E. by S. it passes, as sormerly, within two miles of Bauleah; being separated only from that place by two long islands, the uppermost of which, called Gopalnagur dera, is not marked in the old maps. It is doubtful, indeed, whether it existed at the period when the former surveys were taken. The branch which divides them runs in an E. N. E. direction towards Bauleah, but is not navigable for large boats in the dry season. The lowermost of the two is narrower than it would appear by the old maps, but reaches almost to Surdah, as it is therein represented.

On my approach to Culamary, I entered a new branch, through which a confiderable hody of water flowed with some rapidity; and this led me close to Rajapour, leaving Echamarry on the left. It would. appear, on inspecting Major Rennell's map, that no fuch passage as this had existed formerly; and, indeed, the people informed me, that it had only lately been opened by the great river, the main stream of which, however, continues its course, as heretofore, in an Easterly direction towards Surdah. This was the only inflance I had observed, of the Ganges having infulated a part of the main land, its usual process of forming islands being such as I have before described. It is probable, nevertheless, that the island of Echamarry, which is very extensive, and on which are several other villages, may owe its existence to an alluvion which took place at some remote period; or that it might originally have been an island, which, having Vol. VII. B

having joined itself to the main land, had afterwards been detached from it. I am the more inclined to this belief, as its appearance was similar to other islands of the Ganges, there being no trees of any growth upon it, excepting the Mimofa Nilotica, or baubul, of which there were several clumps about the villages. The breadth of the new channel varied from one to two furlongs, with a confiderable depth of water throughout: and the banks, in some parts, appeared to have fuffered great violence. In one place, particularly, I was struck with their uncommon appearance; a slip of land, five furlongs in length, having detached itself from the main bank, and subsided into the channel. A similar effect, although in a less degree, was visible on the opposite shore; and in many other parts, huge portions of the foil had funk, and formed a double bank, the lower ledge of which was in some places very little above the level of the stream. The continuation of this branch led near Dunyrampour, and terminated a little beyond Sahebnagur, where I entered the great river again, which here runs with confiderable velocity in a Southerly direction.

Passing Jalabarya,* my boat-men pointed out to me what they called the mouth of the Jellinghy river, which was shut up with a solid bank across the whole breadth of it; but this, in sast, must have been the main channel of the Ganges itself, which formerly ran in that direction, as the real head of the Jellinghy is several miles further to the southward. By a survey of part of the Ganges, taken by Major Rennell in the year 1764, it appears that the main stream ran close by the town of Jellinghy; and in his "Account of the Ganges and Burrampooter Rivers," he has particularly mentioned the extraordinary encroachment of the river,

[.] This village is probably the Dyrampour of the oid map:

river, which, in his time, had gradually removed the outlet of the Fellinghy three quarters of a mile further down. The maps, which have been published, all represent the great river as running in that direction; only, that in those of the Cossimbazar Island, and of the Ganges from Surdah to Colligonga, tit would appear doubtful whether the main stream ran on the West or East side of the island of Nipara. There cannot be a doubt, however, that the former was the case, else the encroachment could not have happened; and it is equally certain that the case is now altered; for, by the junction of the upper point of the island with the main land, the whole stream has been diverted in a South-Easterly direction, and does not now approach nearer to the town of Jellinghy than 21 miles. old inlet of the Jellinghy river has been, in confequence, not only rendered unnavigable, but the whole of the channel between Nipara and the main land, viz. from Jalabarya down to Dewangunge, + near 12 miles in length, has been completely filled up, and is now cultivated. A considerable portion, however, of Nipara Island has been washed away; and the remainder of it no longer exists under that name, but is called Monimpour dera. It would appear, indeed, by the direction which the main stream of the Ganges had so late as the year 1795, that it had forced a passage through this island; which seems the more probable, from the name of Monimpour being now common to the land on each fide of it.

The main stream, which, in the year 1795, ran directly down to the inlet of the Howleah river, has, fince that period, been directed again still further to the eastward; and here I beheld with assomithment the Backhaner

* See the Bengal Atlan

⁺ This village having been lately established, is not found in the old maps. It is situated near the inlet of the Howleak or Comer river, at Mayesconda.

change which, in less than two years, had taken place: a confiderable portion of the main channel, which, .t the period abovementioned, had contained nearly t'ie whole stream of the Ganges, being, at the time I last faw it, so completely filled with fands, that I hardly knew myfelf to be in the same part of the river. The fands, in some parts, rose several feet above the level of the stream; and the people had already begun to cultivate fur soo and rice in the very spots where the deepest water had formerly been. Two islands, of confiderable extent, appeared to be quite new; and the channel, in some places, had been reduced, from the breadth of an English mile, to a furlong or less. The main stream, having forced its way in a new direction, did not at this time pass nearer to the inlet of the Howleah than 31 miles, nor nearer than two to Horrisonker.

This remarkable change, I was informed, took place during the extraordinary inundation of 1796; at which time the floods had rifen to an unufual height in almost every part of the country; but it must have been chiefly while the waters were draining off, that fuch an immense body of sand could have been depofited. The inlet of the Howleah had been, in confequence, rendered somewhat difficult of access, and I was obliged to make a circuit round the new islands, of several miles, to get into it; but, notwithstanding the diversion of the stream, I found a considerable depth of water remaining under the main bank, although scarcely any current was visible from Horrifonker to Dewangunge.* On my approach to this place, I was informed that the passage was no longer practicable for boats proceeding to Calcutta by the Iffamutty

Water is found under the banks of the deserted channels of the G ages for a considerable time after they cease to be navigable in the middle of their beds, the space immediately under the bank being generally the last that is filled up. I have likewise observed that, during the growth of the islands, the sand usually gathers round the upper point of the island, and rises to a considerable height, before the space which it leaves between itself and the leak of the island is completely filled.

r :tty* river, as many shallows had been formed to a confiderable distance below the inlet. The marks of tle inundation were, indeed, very visible here; but in one part of the channel opposite to Dewangunge, where I expected to have met with the first shallow, I founded from 20 to 60 feet, in the very place where there had been a ford but two years before. This will ferve to convey an idea, not only of the rapidity with which the waters of the inundation can excavate the loofe soil of Bengal, but also, of the inconstant and fluctuating state of the rivers in general; for I soon found that, notwithstanding the prodigious depth of water at Dewangunge, the Howleah river had been, in an equal degree, choaked up in other parts below that place; and I met with great difficulty in passing over the shallows which had been formed, although the Budjerow in which I travelled did not draw above two feet water.

HAVING now detailed the particular changes in the course of the Ganges which have come under my notice, I shall conclude this part of the subject with a sew general observations concerning that river, referving what I have to say on the smaller branches to

a separate Section of this Memoir.

The Ganges, in its course through Bengal, may be said to have under its dominion a considerable portion of the slat country; for not only the channel which, at any given time, contains the principal body of its waters, but also as much of the land, on each side, as is comprehended within its collateral branches, is liable to inundation, or to be destroyed by the encroachments of the stream, may be considered as belonging to the river. We must, of course, include any track, or old channel, through which it had formerly run, and into which there is any probability of its ever returning again; as the Baugrutty nulla at Gour; the

^{*} The Issumutty is only a continuation of the Howleak or Comer river, which lower down assumes the name of Jaboona, and falling in with the Roymungul, forms one of the principal outlets of the Ganges.

track called "Old Course of the Ganges," in the Cossimbazar Island; or the channel which has been, within these sew yers, so completely silled up near Jellinghy. Considered in this way, the Ganges will be found to occupy a considerable expanse, or which a more correct idea may be formed, by taking the distance between any two places opposite to one another, which had formerly been, or one of which may still remain on the verge of, or in the vicinity of the stream: for instance,

				Miles.
Oodanulla to the ruins of G	our,		-	15
Furruckabad to ditto,				14
Comrah to Nabobgunge,				107
Comerpour to Bogwangola,				94
Extreme breadth of river bed between Jellinghy and Maizeconda,				$9\frac{1}{2}$

Ir corresponding sections of the bed of the river, and neighbouring ground, were represented, it would probably appear, that all the land is disposed in regular strata; whence we might with certainty conclude, that the whole had been at some former periods deposited by the stream.

THE strata, in general, consist of clay, sand, and vegetable earth; the latter of which is always uppermost, except when in some extraordinary high slood, a new layer of sand is again deposited over it, by which means the ground becomes barren, or is at least materially injured.

The bed of the Ganges can scarcely be said to be permanent in any part of its course through Bengal. There are, however, a sew places, where, from local causes, the main channel, and deepest water, will probably be always sound; as Monghir, Sultangunge, Pattergotta, Pointy, Sicrigully, and Rajemahl; at all which places there are tocky points projecting into the stream, and where some parts of the bed of the river are stony, or its banks conful of conker.

On the smaller Rivers and Branches of the Ganges.

The tributary streams of the Ganges, and the numerous channels by which it discharges its waters to the sea, resemble each other in proportion as they differ in size from the main river. Of the former, the Goggra, the Soane, and the Coosa, may be reckoned among the largest; and these, on the slightest inspection of the maps, will appear to slow in more direct courses than any of the smallest streams in their vicinity. Of the latter, the Cossimbazar and Fellinghy rivers, which, by their junction, form the Hoogly; the Comer, or Islamutty, which becomes the Faboona; the Gorroy, and Chandnah, are the principal; but of these, the two last are only navigable throughout during the dry season.* Such of these rivers as are narrowest, are remarkable for their windings; and in this respect they differ materially from the large rivers, all of which have a tendency to run in more direct lines.

THE following Table exhibits a comparison of the relative differences in the lengths of their courses, in given spaces.

RIVERS.	VI ran presetti of Historic channel,	Hori- 7 intal riirance.	Length of their Course,	Excelle for Wind- ings.
Ganges, from Pointy to Bauleah,	Males.	B.Miles I OO	125	25
The Goggia, or Dewah, from its outlet upwards The Hoogly river, from Calcutta to Nuddea	1	100 60	112	25 12 16
The Goomty, from its outlet apwards, - The Islamutty, and Jaboona, from Dewangunge	ŧ	100	175	75
to Baufetulla,	+	100	217	117

B 4

In

There have been instances of all these rivers continuing open in their turns in the dry season. The Jellinghy used formerly to be navigable during the whole or greatest part of the year. The Cossimbazar river was navigable in the dry season of 1796; and the Issumutty continued so for several successive years; but experience has shewn that they are none of them to be depended on.

In the last it appears, that the distance is more than doubled by the windings of the stream; and I could produce many more instances to shew, how much the small rivers exceed the larger in this particular.

As all the rivers which I have mentioned flow over the same flat country, and some of them in directions almost parallel to each other, it is evident that they must have nearly the same declivity in equal spaces, We may conclude, therefore, that the striking difference which is observable in the form of their beds, is owing to an invariable law of nature, which obliges the greater bodies of water to feek the most direct channels; while the smaller and more scanty rivulets are made to wander in various meanders, and circuitous fweeps; spreading fertility, and refreshing the plains with their moisture. And in this, as in every other part of the creation, we see the bounty of Providence most amply manifested; for had the great rivers been decreed to wander like the smaller, they would have encroached too much on the land; while the current being confiderably retarded, would have rendered them more liable to overflow their banks, and less able to drain the smaller streams, and low grounds, of the superabundance of water in high floods. if the tributary streams, and small branches of rivers, had been direct in their courses, they must have poured out their contents with fuch rapidity, that, owing to the greater influx of water from the former, the main rivers would have been still more liable to fudden overflows; while the branches at their outlets, although, from their straightness, better able to drain off the superfluous water to the sea, would yet have been rendered less fit for the purposes of navigation, and the convenience of man.

WHAT I have now to offer on the subject of the smaller rivers, relates more particularly to the Baugruity and Islamuity,

Is applied, in some measure, to all such as slow through the plains of Bengal.

It has already been shewn, that the encroachments on the banks of the Ganges, which produce inslections in the course of that river, are ultimately stopped by the growth of islands; which connecting themselves with the main land, have a tendency to restore a degree of straightness to the channel. The small rivers are liable to the same encroachments on their banks; but as there is not sufficient space between them for islands of any bulk to grow up, the effect is usually very different; for the stream continuing its depredations on the steep side, and depositing earth and sand on the opposite shore, produces in the end such a degree of winding, as, in some instances, would appear almost incredible. I will particularize only a few of the most extraordinary cases I have met with.

The distance from Bulliah to Serampour, two villages on the western bank of the Islamity, is somewhat less than a mile and a half; in the year 1795, the distance by water was nine miles, so that, at the ordinary rate of tracking, which seldom exceeds two miles in the hour, a boat would be $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours in going from one place to the other. The river in that space had seven distinct reaches, two of which were of considerable length; and between three others, which nearly formed a triangle, the neck of land which separated the two nearest was only 14 yards* across; while the distance round exceeded three miles. See Plate II. fig. 1.

HIGHER up this river, the village of Simnautpour is fituated close to a narrow isthmus, across which the distance

^{*} In January, 1797, I found this narrow isthmus broke through by the river; and on sounding in the very spot where it had existed, and where the bank had been upwards of 20 feet high, I found 18 feet water. This alteration, in the course of the Issamutty, saves the traveller upwards of three indes.

distance is little more than a furlong; and as the village nearly fills the whole space, boats pass one side of it a considerable time before they come to he other; for the distance round is six miles. See Prate II. sig. 2.

But the most extraordinary of all the windings I met with, was near Sibnibas, where this river is projected into six distinct reaches, within the space of a square mile, forming a kind of labyrinth, somewhat resembling the spiral form of the human ear. In this were three necks of land, the broadest of which little exceeded one surlong. See Plate II. fig. 3.

Every person who has travelled by water to the upper provinces, must remember the circuitous course of the Baugrutty river, and the extraordinary twift which it formerly had near Plaffey, and also at Rungamutty,* and between Cossimbazar and the city of Moorshudabad. Some of these windings have been removed, by cutting canals across the narrow necks of land, and these having been considerably widened and deepened by the stream, are now become the real bed of the river; the old channel being in such cases foon blocked up by fands, and frequently by a folid bank across the whole breadth of it. There is, however, no other advantage in making fuch cuts, than that of rendering the passage somewhat shorter by water; for, in other respects, it is sometimes attended with inconvenience to the natives who inhabit the banks of the rivers, and should never be attempted. but when some valuable buildings, or lands, may be faved by it; and it is a question worth considering, whether by shortening the course of any river, we may not render it less navigable; for the more a river winds, the flower will be its current, and confequently its waters will not be drained off fo foon. † Another effect

^{*} See Plate III. figs. 1 and 2.

⁺ See Mr. Mann's Treatise on Rivers and Canals, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1779.

us

effect of the shortening of its course might be, that, owing to the greater rapidity of the current acting against the sides in a loose soil, it might too much enlarge the capacity of its bed, the effect of which would be to produce a proportionable degree of shallowness in the middle of the stream.* I cannot say that this has been the case at any of the places where cuts have hitherto been made; but it is not improbable that the greater velocity which they give to the current throughout, might produce such an effect in other parts.

THE end which is proposed by cutting such canals. is very often effected by nature alone; for the narrow ishmus between the opposite reaches being gradually straitened by the current washing away the bank on both sides, it becomes at length too slender to resist the pressure of the waters in the rainy season, and is burst open.† This no sooner happens, than the river widens the breach, and foon renders it sufficiently capacious for the passage of the whole of its waters; in which case, the old circuitous channel is abandoned, and being foon shut up at both ends, in the manner pointed out above, continues in the form of a stagnated jeel or pool. I have seen several of these jeels near the banks of the Coffembazar and Isfamutty rivers, tome of which appeared to have existed many years; for they are not fo liable to be filled up as the deferted reaches of the Ganges, whose waters during the high floods are impregnated with a much greater quantity of fand and mud; and as in a hot climate, the effluvia which arise from all stagnated waters must necessarily infect the air, this reason alone should suffice to deter

^{*} The great breadth of the Cossimbazar river at Moorahudabad, is the principal cause of its shallowness at that place.

² See Plate II. fig. 1; and the Note in p. 25.

t The Motifel lake was formerly one of the windings of the Cosstableur river.—See Major Rennell's Memoirs. Another of these swamps, or one which neight possibly have been a part of that river at some remote period, now exists near Burrangion; and an attempt, though ineffectual, was lately made to dren it, on recount of its unwholesome exhalations.

us from anticipating nature in a matter which, with fuch apparent disadvantages, has nothing more to ecommend it, than the shortening by a few miles he navigation of a river.

THE reaches of the small rivers are not all equally winding, and liable to change; but some are sound to run with tolerable straightness for several miles. fuch parts, their channels appear to have been permanently fettled for ages, and to have every appearance of continuing fo; for the current proceeding at a flow and steady rate, in a direction parallel to the shores. does not encroach upon the banks, which are here generally floping, and firm. The fites of many of the principal towns, and villages, along their banks, have been cstablished on such spots; as Moorshudabad, Churkoh, Chowrogatchy, Mutyaree, Dyahaut, and fome others on the Baugrutty; and Bungoung, Marole, and Taldahy, on the Islamutty. Nor is it easy to conceive any thing more beautiful than the view of fome of these reaches, particularly where the banks are shaded by large trees, and chriched with temples, gauts, and other buildings, or lometimes clothed with verdure down to the water's edge.

Ar the turning between the feveral reaches, we frequently find large pools, where the water is confiderably deeper, and where allo the breadth of the channel is much greater than in other parts. I am inclined to think, that thefe are not always produced by the more operation of the current, but are fornetimes owing to cavities, or fmall lakes, which exilled before the river, by the shifting of its bed, had worked a passage through them; particularly as in some we find a flat or shelving shore on the concave or outer fide of the pool, and a fleep jutting point at the oppofite angle, which is the very reverle of what is produced by the natural agency of the stream; for in other places we usually find the steep bank deepest water, and confequently the greatest velocity of the current

current on the concave fide of the bank, while the opposite shore is shelving, and the water frequently so hallow that boats cannot approach it.

Along the banks of the Islamutty river, and in a few instances in the course of the Baugrutty, the shelving points which are formed at the angles between the reaches, are over-run with thick jungles of long grass, which are the usual haunts of tygers, wild busfaloes, and other animals. But this is more commonly the case along the banks of the former, where the country is not only less cultivated, but where the more intricate windings of that river afford greater shelter to wild beasts.*

THE deepest water in these rivers is usually found under the high banks, and at the angles between the feveral reaches; but in the straight reaches, where the banks are floping, and the river is of a moderate breadth, the greatest depth will always be found in the middle of the channel. I have frequently founded upwards of 30 feet in the Iffamutty; but thele great depths of the fiream are of little avail, not being general; for in other parts where that river expands itfelf over a broad and fandy bed, or where the fishermen drive hamboos, and draw their nets acrofs the channel, obstructing the consent, and conling a confiderable accumulation of family the water frequently shoals to two fect, or less. The same causes operate to render the Jellinghy and Bargauty unnavigable in the dry feason; but in a fall greater degree, owing to the oreater width of their channels.

HAVING now described generally the nature of the small rivers and branches of the Ganges, I shall offer a few

[&]quot;In these spots, haves, partridges, and other game, abound; but it is difficult or dangerous to attempt to start them without elephants; nor is it necessary to do so, if the object of the sportsman
is merely to kill game to me table; for in the vicinity of the plantations, and along the skirts of the jungles, he will frequently find
enough to satisfy him, without the samper of encountering a tyget.

a few hints as to the possibility or practicability of rendering the latter navigable at all scasons, the importance of which object, if it could be attained, must be obvious.

THE principal causes which obstruct the navigation of these rivers, may be reduced to three: first, the quantity of fands which are occasionally thrown into their beds by the Ganges; secondly, the too great breadth of their channels in fundry parts where there is not a proportionable depth; and thirdly, the cafual obstructions which are thrown in the way of the stream by the fishermen. The first of these, it will readily be conceived, can never be prevented; but so long as these rivers continue to be the outlets of the Ganges, and to drain off a confiderable portion of its waters, there will always be a stream throughout their channels during the whole year, however feanty it may be in some parts. I have never, at least, known an instance of their being left dry in any part of their beds; excepting the Jellinghy, the old entrance to which, as I have mentioned before, had been entirely shut up, but which continues, notwithstanding, to receive a supply of water from the Culcullia, and to maintain its communication with the Ganges through that channel.

As the shallows, which are produced from the causes above-mentioned, are only partial, affecting only in a small degree, comparatively with their lengths, the channels of these rivers, it might be possible to counteract them in such a manner as to produce a more equal distribution of water; and as the depth which would be requisite for boats of a moderate burthen is inconsiderable, perhaps it might be effected with much less labour and expence, than might at first be imagined.

I was led to this supposition, from frequently seeing that the mere operation of dragging by force, a boat,

or budgerow, through any of the shallows, tended, by stirring up the sands, to deepen the channel. therefore, round or flat-bottomed boats can produce fuch an effect, in how much greater a degree might it not be done by means of a machine constructed for the purpose, which might be dragged to and fro through the shallow place, until a sussicient depth of water should be obtained for the palfage of boats. If fuch machines, which might be contrived fomewhat in the form of a large iron rake, and occasionally to go on wheels, were to be stationed at the several villages, or towns, in the vicinity of the shallows, it is possible that the Zemeendars might be induced, for a moderate confideration, to furnish people, or cattle, to put them in motion, whenfoever it might be necesfary.*

With regard to the too great breadth of the channel, it would not so easily be remedied; but as the shallows which are produced from this cause, are sew in number, and are only to be met with in some of the long reaches, as at Moorshudabad, and Bulleah, it would be worth while to try how far, by filling up a part of the channel, we could prevent the expansion of the stream; and, by confining it within certain limits, could accelerate the motion and depth of the water.

THE last cause of accumulation of fand and shallowness, might be prevented, by prohibiting the natives from driving bamboos across the channel for the purpoles of fishing; as they have many other ways of catching fish, without detriment to the navigation of these rivers.

II. On

^{*} Since this paper was written, a proposal has been submitted to the Government, by the Author, for attempting to keep open the Cossimbazar river, or Jellingby, during the dry season.

II.

ON SINGHALA, OR CEYLON,

AND THE

Doctrines of Bhooddha.

FROM THE BOOKS OF THE SINGHALAIS.

BY

CAPTAIN MAHONY.

A CCORDING to the opinions of the Singhalais, and from what appears in their writings, the universe perished ten different times, and by a wonderful operation of nature was as often produced a-new. For the government of the world at those different periods, there were 22 Bhooddhas, a proportionate number of whom belonged to each period. Besides this, the Singhalais affert, from record, the total destruction and regeneration of the universe many other times; the written authorities for which are no longer to be found.

For the government of the present universe, which is to be considered in addition to those above stated, sive Bhooddhas are specified; sour of whom have algready appeared;—Karosandeh Bhooddha, Konamaneh B—, Kaserjeppen B—, and Gautemeh B—; and the sisth, Maitree B—, is still to come. This last Bhooddha will be born of a Braminee woman: and though the place of a Bhooddha is now vacant in the world, yet there exists a Sahampattu Maha Brachma, or Supreme of all the Gods, who has it under his peculiar guidance. The last of the above-inentioned sour Bhooddhas (Gautemeh B—) is the one whose religion now prevails in Ceylon, and of whom it is here intended to make some mention.

THE

THE WORD BHOODDHA, in the Palee and Singhalai languages, implies, Univerfal Knowledge or Holiness; also a Saint superior to all the Saints, even to the God MAIA BRACHMA; and is understood in these various senses by the natives of Ceylon.

THE BHOODDHISTS speak of 26 heavens, which they divide in the following manner.

1st, The Deveh Loke, consisting of 6: 2d, the Brachmah Loke, consisting of 16; 5 of which are considered as Triumphant Heavens: and 3d, the Arroopeh Loke, consisting of 4. They say of the virtuous, "That they do not enjoy the reward of their good deeds until after having repeatedly died, and appeared as often in the six sirst heavens, called Deveh Loke; in order to be born again, in the world, to great wealth and consequence: and having, at length, enjoyed a fore taste of bliss in the 11 inserior Brachmah Lokes, they ascend the sive superior Brachmah Lokes, or Triumphant Heavens, where transmigration ends, and where they enjoy the full"ness of glory, and the purest happiness."

BHOODDHA, before his appearance as man, was a God, and the Supreme of all the Gods. At the folicitations of many of the Gods, he descended on earth, and was frequently born as a man, in which character he exercised every possible virtue, by extraordinary instances of self-denial and piety. He was at length born of MAHAMAYA DEVEE, after a pregnancy of 10 months, and had for father Sooddode'neh RAJA. He lived happily with his queen YASSODERA, and 40,000 concubines, for 31 years. The fix next he passed in the midst of wildernesses, qualifying himself to be a BHOODDHA. At the close of this period, his calling became manifest to the world, and he Vol. VII.

In the kingdom or country called Dumba Deera, Madda Désé, and the city of Kimbool-wat-pooree.

CXCrcifed his functions as BHOODDHA for 45 years. He died in Coofeemarapooree, at the Court of Malleleh Raja, Tuesday, the 15th of May; from which period the BHOODDHA WAROOSEII, or æra of BHCDDDHA, is dated, which now (A. C. 1797) amounts to 2339 years.

BHOODDHA is not, properly speaking, considered as a god, but as having been born man, and in the end of time arrived at the dignity of a Bhooddha, on account of his great virtues, and extraordinary good qualities. The title of Bhooddha was not conferred on him by any superior power; he adopted it by his own sovereign will, in the same manner as he became man, both of which events were predicted ages before. Bhooddha, after his death, ascended to the Hall of Glory, called Mookizé, otherwise Nirgoowané, which is a place above, and exceeding in magnificence, the 26th heaven: there he will live for ever, in happiness and incorruptibility, never to be born again in the world; where his doctrine is at prefent extant, and will continue in all its splendor for 5000 years, according to his own prophecy. Long after the lapse of this period of 5000 years, another Вноордна, named MAITREE BHOODDHA, will be born. The direction or vicegerency of MAHA BRACHMA, who, as the Supreme of all the Gods, has the particular guardianship of the world, will cease after an infinite number of ages, when the universe will perish. and another succeed to it. MAHA BRACHMA will then advance by degrees through 17 heavens, which are above the nine, in the uppermost of which he now resides, until he at length acquires all the qualifications to become a BHOODDHA.

The learned Singhalais do not acknowledge, in their writings, a Supreme Being, presiding over, and the author of, the universe. They advert only to a Saham-pattee Maha Brachma, who is the first and Supreme of all the Gods, and say, that he, as well as the host

host of Gods inferior to him, and their attendants, have neither sless or bones, nor bodies possessing any degree of consistency, though apparently with hair on their heads, and teeth in their mouths: and their skins are impregnated with the most luminous and brilliant qualities. They affert a first Cause, however, under the vague denomination of Nature.

In support of their denial of a Supreme Power, who created heaven and earth, they urge, "that if there existed such a creator, the world would not periss, and be annihilated; on the contrary, he would be careful to guard it in safety, and preserve it from corruptibility." In the first instance, Bhooddha interferes in the government of the world; next to him, Sahampattee Maha Brachma; and afterwards the respective Gods, as they are, by their relative qualifications, empowered.

The world, fay they, perished frequently in former times, and was produced a-new by the operations of the above power: Gods and men from the fame fource. The latter, on dying, afcend the fix Inferior Heavens, or Deveh Loke; are judged according to their merits, by one of the most inferior Gods, named Yammen Raja, in the lower heaven, Pavenirm Mitchwassch warteyeh, and regenerate of themselves, on the earth, either as men or brutes; which regeneration continues until they arrive at the Brachmah Loke, or the Heavens of the Superior Gods; and so on, by degrees, at the Triumphant Heavens, until they at length reach the Supreme Heaven, or Arreopeh Leke. Properly speaking, transmigration takes place with these only who ascend the Deuch Loke.

In the manifested dostrine of Buconnus, there is no mention of created fouls. The learned treat but of a breath of life in man, which they compare to a leech, that first attaches itself to a body with

with its fore part, previous to giving up his hold with the hinder part. Therefore they fay, "the body does not die before this breath of life has fixed itself in another, whether from a fore-knowledge of its being about to ascend the heavens, or to undergo the pains of everlasting or temporary damnation in hell." That which is termed the breath of life, is deemed "immortal."

The Singhalais speak not surther of what is understood by us under the term of Paradise, than that there is a place reserved for the blessed, free from all sin, sull of all joy, glory and contentment. But Nirgowané, otherwise called Mooktzé, signifying a Hall of Glory, where the deceased Bhooddhas are supposed to be, is, according to the testimony of Gautemen Bhooddha, situated, as already noticed, above the highest or a6th heaven, Neweh Sanja Jatténé, the seat of the most persect and supreme bliss. Hell, on the contrary, is supposed to be beneath the lowest extremity of the earth, with waters again beneath it, where the most dreadful tempests rage without intermission.

The earth, or this world, called Manoospeh Loke, and the Inserior Heaven, Katoormaha Rajee Keyeh, are under the sub-direction of the God Sakkereh: he again delegates his authority to four other Gods immediately subjected to him, who respectively guard the sour quarters, or sour parts, into which the Singhalais, in their system, divide the earth. Dirtheh Rashfereh presides over the East, called Poorweh Weedéseyeh: Weeroodhe' the South, Jamboodweepeeh: Weeroopaak Serreh, the West, Apperengodaneh: and Wayserreh Wenneh, the North, Octoorookooroo Dewehinneh. None but Gods can pass from any of these worlds, or divisions of the world, to the other. One comprises our known earth of Europe.

^{*} He is besides commonly called Schlercho, Schlercha, Schlerch Devec Roja.

rope, Asia, Africa, and America, and is termed by them, Jamboodweepeh. Each is supposed to be re-flected upon by a precious stone in the heavens, through the medium of which, the fun and moon emit their lustre: the blue sapphire is ascribed to ours; the white fapphire, ruby, and topaz, to the other three. A principal duty of these Gods, is, to guard their superior God, SAKKEREH, against the machinations of his chief and most powerful enemy, the God We'PE'-CHITTEE ASSOCREENDREHYA, who resides beneath the Sea, in a lower world, termed Affoorehloke. Then follows their care to the parts of the world confided to them. On the day of the new moon, that of the first quarter, and on the full, they inquire by their fervants, their male children, and latterly by themselves, into the conduct of mankind; the result of which inquiries they report to the great council of SAKKEREH, confisting of himself and 32 members, (inferior Gods:) the extremes of good and bad report of the conduct of mortals, are causes of the utmost concern, or most unbounded joy, to this affembly.

THE Singhalais affert, as manifested by BHOODDHA, that there are 120,535 inserior Gods belonging to the lower heavens and the earth; besides innumerable Kombaendeyos, or angels; but the former, as well as the latter, are subject to the control of superior Gods. They arrange the characters in their mythology as follows:

- 1st, Bhooddha.
- ed, Maha Brachma.
- 3d, Sakkereh.
- 4th, Sakkereh's 32 Counsellers.
- 5th, The 4 Gods, guardians of the 4 quarters of the world.
- 6th, The other inferior Gods of the heavens.
- 7th, Kombaendeyos, or angels.
- Sth, The Gods who reside on earth, and their servants.

DIEPANKEREH BHOODDHA was one of the twenty-two BHOODDHAS formerly alluded to, and held the first rank among them. His name is frequently mentioned in the books now extant among the Singhalais; and hey, from many considerations, hold him in peculiar veneration. He was famed for the uncommon beauty of his person; and the followers of the true dostrine were more numerous in his days, than during the government of other BHOODDHAS in those remote periods.

GAUTEMEH BHOODDHA is acknowledged by the Singhalais, to be the same holy character termed by the Siamese, Sommonokodom, and Pootisat. Sommono Gautemeh, is, however, according to the former, the proper mode or writing the first appellation. Sommono, in the Palee language, implies a renowned Saint, whose garb, as well as his actions, marks his character: in many senses it is synonimous with Bhooddha. Gatuimeh, or Gautimo, (as it is occasionally pronounced by those from whom I caught the sound,) is a proper name, pertaining to a person of ancient and illustrious descent. Bhooddisat, or Poodisatweyo, is a title given to those in heaven destined to become Bhooddhas.

THE Palee is the language in which BHOODDHA is faid to have preached his doctrine, and manifested his law. This language is also termed, by the learned Singhalais, the Magedee and Moola Basha; basha being the Singhalais for language. The principal and most holy code among the Singhalais, and that which may be termed their Bible, appears to be the Abidarmeh Pitékeh Sattappré Karrance. This book is written in the above dialect, and may be had at the capital of Candia: at least it is in the possession of the learned there. A priest of the religion of BHOODDHA, whom I questioned concerning the Védas and Pooraans of the Hindoos, and whether the book just mentioned had any relation to them, replied, "The Védas are books

"in the possession of, and taught by, the Brahmines; they contain the principles of every science, but treat not of theology. We possess many books of the same tendency, and equally profound, in the Falce language, some of which have been translated into the Singhalais. We have no knowledge of the Pooraans." I then urged the real contents of the Védas, that they were interspersed with speculations on metaphysics, and discourses on the being and attributes of God, and were considered of divine origin. Of the Pooraans, I added, that they comprised a variety of mythological histories, from the creation to the incarnation of Bhooddha.

Any further acquaintance with these books, than what has been already mentioned, was disclaimed. But as to the supposed incarnation of Bhooddha, "The 46 Hindoos (rejoined the Priest) must furely be little 46 acquainted with this subject, by their allusion to "only one. BHOODDHA (if they mean BHOODDHA 66 DHERMA RAJA) became man, and appeared as fuch 66 in the world at different periods, during ages, before 66 he had qualified himfelf to be a Bhoodhia. These 66 various incarnations took place by his own supreme 66 will and pleasure, and in consequence of his fu-66 perior qualifications and merits. I am therefore in-" clined to believe, that the Hindoos, who thus fpeak 66 of the incarnation of a Bhoodbha, cannot allude 66 to him whose religion and law I preach, and who is "now a refident of the Hall of Glory, fitnated above " the 26th heaven."

The temples of Bhooddha are properly called Booddestaneh, Siddestaneh, and Maleegawa. These epithets are, however, seldom used, when speaking of such places: Vihare, and Viharagee, which strictly mean the habitations of the priests, that are always built close to the temples dedicated to Bhooddha, are the most general.

14 THE

THE religion of BHOODDHA, as far as I have had any infight into it, seems to be founded in a mild and simple morality. BHOODDHA has taken for his principles, Wisdom, Justice, and Benevolence; * from which principles emanate Ten Commandments, held by his followers as the true and only rule of their conduct. He places them under three heads; thought, word, and deed; t and it may be faid, that the spirit of them is becoming, and well fuited to him whose mild nature was first shocked at the sacrifice of cattle. These commandments comprise what is understood by the moral law, which has been generally preached by all the BHOODDHAS in different countries; but chiefly by the last, or GAUTEMEH BHOODDHA, in the empire of Raja GAHA NOOWEREH. They are contained in a code of laws written in the Palee language, called Dikfangeeyeh.

THE BHOODDHISTS have prayers adapted to circumstances, which are used privately in their houses, and publicly in presence of the congregation. They were first recorded by the King WATTEH GEMMOONOO ABE-YENAJEH, as regularly handed down from BHOODDHA, in whose days the art of writing was not known. BHOODDHISTS are obliged to pray three times a day, about five o'clock in the morning, at noon, and towards the fall of night. Their devotions are addressed to BHOODDHA and his RAHATOONS, (Apostles,) with a religious respect for his code of laws, and the relics both of him and the RAHATOONS. The respect afforded to the relics, is in memory of the characters to which they belonged, without afcribing to them any supernatural virtue. Four days in the month are dedicated to public worship, the four first days of the changes of the moon, when those who are able attend at the temples. There are no other public days of festival or thanksgiving: all are, however, at liberty

* Singulese. Bhooddha, Derniah, Sangeh.
† Singulese. Hittenema, Keryenema, Kerrenema.—Palee. Manneshet,
Waak, Kayeh.

to felect such day for themselves, and this they particularize by acts of devotion, consisting in fasting, prayer, and forming resolutions for their suture good con duct; all which devout acts are addressed to their Saviour BHOODDHA, &c.

It is customary for the pious, who attend at the temples more regularly, to make offerings at the altar. Before the hour of 11 A. M. dressed victuals may be introduced, but not after that hour; slowers only can then be presented. The victuals are generally eaten by the priests, or their attendants, and form a principal part of their resources.

THERE is one character in the church superior to all, who is distinguished by name, and the duties of his office: he is stilled DAMMAH CANDEH MAHA NAYEKEH.

During the reign of the Portuguese in Ceylon, the religion of Bhooddha was much persecuted, and became in confequence neglected, and almost unknown, even to its votaries. When the Dutch conquered the island, greater liberties being granted to the followers of Bhooddha, the priests acquired some degree of light, and with the affistance of learned men sent from Siam, religion again began to flourish. high-priest, about this time, was a person of extensive learning, and great piety. In the former he exceeded the very men sent from Siam to instruct him. superior talents gained him the title of SREEHNAN-KEREH SANGA RAJA, which was granted him by the King of Stam and his high-priest conjointly, and confirmed by the King of Candia. Since the death of Sanga Raja, there has been no person of his rank; none have been sound of sufficient learning. For the ordination of a priest, a council is assembled, contilling of the high-priest, with thirty others of learning, and

and the two ministers of state. The person intended for orders, being previously examined, and deemed, in every respect, fit to fill the character of priest, is introduced into this affembly, and then asked, if villing to conform to the different duties required of him; and whether he defires ardently to enter into holy orders. On answering in the affirmative, he is stripped of the clothes he wore at entering, and receives. from the hands of two priests, the robes belonging to his new character. He is before this vested with inferior rank and powers, which can be granted by the generality of Temples; but before this council only, can he be made a priest, or Terrunasseh. He must be perfect in all his limbs, and not under twenty years of age; in addition to which, good conduct and learning are the only requisites for priesthood. A priest is bound to celibacy: but when any one wishes no longer to continue in orders, he has it at his option to refign, at a meeting of the priests of his district, which takes place monthly, either at the new or full moon; sometimes at both. Quitting orders in this manner is not deemed a difgrace; but to be dismissed for improper conduct, is looked upon as the greatest of all ignominy. Various are the modes by which they incur guilt: among fuch, the killing even a fly; connexion, or a wish for such, with women; any use of strong liquor: thest, of the most harmless kind, or a lie, may be principally noted. They can eat once or twice a day, according to the promise made at ordaining: it is necessary, however, that their meals should be between sun-rise and 11 o'clock A. M. After the latter hour no priest can eat, but may drink. The priests of Bhoodbha live upon charity, and by their law, are allowed to eat of every species of food offered to them in that way. Was a priest, however, to enter a house, and a sowl to be killed purpolely for him, then would he be culpable: for the law of Bhooddha forbids the killing of any animal. The BHOODDHISTS of Ceylon never eat of beef; but the prohibition, if such may be deemed the cause, pertains

pertains not to their religion. A certain King of Ceylon, at a remote period, is said to have issued a mandate to that effect, in consequence of the unusual expenditure of butter he had occasion for, to celebrate a sestival of thanksgiving to BHOODDHA: the allowing of a cow to be killed, was, by that order, death to the owner, though he had no share in the act. Such, the Singhalais fay, was the earliest cause of the above custom: which, however, is ascribed by many, to their gratitude towards the animal. Be this as it may, they certainly refrain from the use of such food as strictly as the Hindoos, with this difference in their prejudices, that they have no objection to feeing, or touching, the flesh of a cow; nor do they object to the use we make of it. The King is, in general, obliged to consult with the high-priest on all matters of moment. His advice is frequently taken, and fecrets communicated to him, when the ministers are neither confulted nor trufted.

A species of confirmation is enjoined by the law of Bhooddha, termed Sarana Sieleh. The ceremony is short, and simple. It includes nothing more than a confession of, and a formal introduction into, the faith; which is concluded by a blessing from the priest, expressing his wishes that Bhooddha, his Rahatoons, and doctrine, may be the means of everlasting happiness to the person initiated.

MATRIMONY (called, in Singhalais, Magooleh, and in Palee, Kalianeh Mangalleh) takes place in the following manner.

THE parents, on both sides, go alike to demand a husband or wife for their child. If the parties agree, a day is fixed upon, when the relations assemble in the house of the bridegroom, to repair together to that of the bride. Previous to setting out, the man sends the woman a complete assortment of necessaries for dress: also to the mother, a piece of white cloth, and one of the same description to the washerwoman. He likewise sends seven Kaddehs* of different forts of eatables; and a Taddeh, which is called Geeramool Taddeh, toontaining a branch of ripe plantains, with a variety of wichuals; a box for beetle-nut; one for chunam; a pair of feissars, to cut the beetle-nut; and the requisite quantity of chunam. th

ALL those articles being fent to the house of the female, the parties already mentioned repair there. A large table is placed in the centre of the room, covered over with a white cloth, called Magool porooweh: both extremities of the apartment are in like manner ornamented with cloth. The company, confifting of relations only, having entered, the young couple advance towards each other from oppolite ends of the room; the female attended by a younger brother, whose deficiency is to be supplied by another relation beneath her in years. The man and woman having met in the centre of the room, the brother, or relation, accompanying the woman, washes the right foot of the intended husband; and the latter puts a gold ring on a finger of the hand with which he is washed. Then the two uncles, or next nearest relations to the contracting parties, tie a thread round the little fingers of their right hands, thus uniting them; after which, the new married woman dresses herself in the clothes her husband had sent her.

THE father and mother of the bride make seven presents to the bridegroom, viz. an upper dress, called, by the Singhalais, Jouan hettee it a bonnet:

^{*} A lead carried in the stile of bangce, suspended to the extremities of a bamboo. Magool Kudd signifies the burthens (viands) for the feast.

⁺ Geeramool signifies principal, or of chief note: and Taddek, a burthen carried by two or four.

¹ Kehelken. | Boolut payeh. § Keeleté. ** Geeré. †† Hoonoo.
11 The upper dress worn by the Candians, with puffed sleeves, reaching the elbow; the body part as far down as the navel.

net; a ring; t a cloth to be worn below; t a fire-lock; 22 buttons for his dress; a pin, ** fuch as they use, with a finall knife at one end, either of gold or, silver.

EXTRACT FROM THE MAHA RAJA WAL-LIEH, A SINGHALAIS HISTORY.

CHAPTER VI.

To the right of the Bogaha treet lies a country called Kalleengoo Rattehgooratteh, where there reigned a king named Kallingoo Raje. He had a daughter, whom he gave in marriage to the Emperor of Waggooratteh, stiled Wagoo Raje. The Empress, his wife, being brought to bed of a daughter, he called together the astrologers, to calculate her destiny: and it was decreed by them, that however careful the Emperor might be of her safety, this daughter, when arrived at maturity, would be taken away from him by a Lion.

THE Emperor, alarmed at the intelligence, hastened to secure the Princess by every possible means. He placed about her person numberless servants; and, for greater safety, caused her to be bred up in an apartment surrounded by guards.

^{*} Toppich. This word, I imagine, they borrowed from the Portuguese. † Moodchirroowch. ‡ Gindangehtoopotich. || Tooukoowch. § Bottams. ** Oolkatoopihich.

the This is the tree the Stamese call Prasi Maha Pout: it is held alike sacred by them and the Sanghalais. The latter term it, by way of excellence, Sree Maha Boden Wahangsé. It was against this tree that Bhooddha leaned when he first took upon himself his divine character. A branch of the original tree is said to have been brought to Caylon in a miraculous manner, and planted at Annoradhepoorch Noowench: where to this day a tree of that description is worshipped, and thought to possess extraordinary virtues. The Bogaha, or tree of Bhooddha, is that, I think, called, in Hindoostan, the Peepul, (Ficus Religiosa.) a species of banian, with heart-like and pointed leaf. The Singhalais, when describing the different countries they presend to a knowledge of, make this tree the central point, and determine the position of the place by its relative situation.

IT happened, one night, that this Princess took the opportunity of her attendants fleeping, to evade their vigilance, and make her escape; which she did by opening the door of her apartment, and getting out on the terrace: from thence she jumped into the This street being a place of general resort for merchants, she chanced to fall in with some persons of that description, who were just setting out for a distant country, and joined them. Having reached the land of Ladeh Defeh, in their passage through a thick wood, a Lion darted out, and caused all to run off, except the Princess, who selt herself unable to move. She was scized by the Lion, who carried her to the furthest extremity of the wood, where he lived with her till she produced two children; the first a fon, and then a daughter.

WHEN those children had acquired the age of reafon, they used frequently to confider among themselves, how it came to pass that their father differed fo widely in features from their mother and them, and at length addreffed their mother on the subject. She informed them, that their father was a Lion; and on being again asked whence it came that they had a Lion for their father, she replied, by making them acquainted with the whole of her story, which the son had no fooner heard, than he began to confider on the means of cscaping from this place, with his mother and fifler. Occupied with this idea, he one day followed his father, to observe where he went, and for what purpole: he faw that he made very confiderable bounds, and travelled upwards of 150 leagues; the next time, therefore, that his father fet out on a like excursion, he carried away his mother and fifter. They fled towards the country of his mother, where her brother reigned, having succeeded his father, and on their arrival, were received by the King with every demonstration of joy.

THE

The Lion, at his return home, was extremely afflicted at the loss of his wife and children, and shortly after became furious. Having scented out the track they had taken, he soon arrived in the neighbourhood of the place where they resided, and began by attacking and killing every person he met with. The inhabitants assembled, and carried their complaints to the King, of a Lion that insested the country, and put all to death that came in his way. The King, in consequence of this representation, ordered a number of people to be sent out in pursuit of the Lion: but their efforts were of no avail; his tremendous roar instilled dismay into all who attempted to approach him; and such as he was able to lay hold of, he instantly killed.

THE King then declared publicly his determination to share his kingdom and treasures with the person who would put this Lion to death; upon which the very fon of the Lion avowed himfelf a candidate for the reward, and pledged himself to kill him. with him his bow and arrows, he repaired to the place where the Lion was: and the moment he perceived him, let fly an arrow that pierced his right fore-leg: but the Lion hearing then the voice of his fon, was infensible of pain. A fecond arrow entering the left leg, worked up his rage, and he was about to vent it, when a third arrow paifed through his head. and brought him to the ground. In falling, he called Ah, my fon!" and defired him to approach. which the fon doing, he placed his head on his knees, and during his last groans, uttered expressions fraught with tendernels for his wife and daughter, to whom he charged his fon to convey them: he then expired.

THE fon cut off his head; and taking it with him to the palace, presented it to the King; who, according to promise, shared his kingdom and treasures with him.

In a part of the country that came to his share, lay that of Ladeh Desch, where his mother had formerly been taken off by the Lion. Here he built a magnificent palace, and afterwards gave to the whole of his possessions, the name of Singhéba Noowereh; and having become King, he took the name of Singhéba Rajaroowoo; and gave to his sister, whom he married, that of Singhe' Wallee Commaree.

This Queen had issue sixteen times, at each of which she brought forth two sons. Her first came into the world under the planet Mooweh Sreefceh Nékéteh; the hour of his birth was termed Gooroogch Horaweh, and he received the name of VILEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO. The fame day were also born 700 male children in the kingdom of Singhéba Noowereh. These 700 children, when arrived at manhood, became the constant companions of VIJEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO; and, in concert with him, were the fource of much disturbance in the country. The inhabitants united in complaining to the King of the improper conduct of his son, which led to the difgrace of the young Prince, and so irritated his father, that he ordered him to leave his dominions.

VIJEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO called together his 700 companions, and having explained to them his father's injunctions, they unanimously agreed to follow his fortune to some distant land. They accordingly all put to sea, in a vessel which the King permitted to be got ready for the occasion.

AFTER having been at sea a considerable time, they at length discovered the high land of Ceylon, called Sammanalleh Sree Padé,† and concluding

^{*} Singhéba means Lion-tailed; Singhalai, Lion raced; the termination lai, being the Singhalais for blood.

Adam's Peak.

ing, that beneath there must be an extensive and fertile plain, it was determined to steer for it. They shortly after came to an anchor, and landed at a place to which they gave the name of Tammench Totteh.* Here they found a tree, called Noogeh gaha, under which they sheltered and rested themselves.

BEFORE the birth of BHOODDHA, the Island of Ceylon was known by the name of Sree Lankawe. In former times there was a mighty war in this island, termed Rawena Jooddé; after which it continued void of population for a term of 1845 years, being entirely overrun by malignant Spirits. BHOODDHA was then born; and, in due time, took on himself his holy character. He resided in the Empire of RAJA GAHA ·Nooweren, near to the temple called Wéloo Wama Ramée. From thence he observed, with concern, that so fine a country should be a prey to evil spirits and demons; and determined on expelling them from He arrived in the island, for that purpose, on a Thursday, (Brahaspotinda,) in the month of January, (Doorootoo,) when the planet Rossée Nekéteh presided, and took up his residence at a place called Mayan Gannee.

Here follows an account of the holy labours of Bhooddha, during the three vifits he is supposed to have paid Ceylon; whereby he almost totally extirpated, or banished to distant countries, the evil genii's that had infested the island. I have said almost, as it appears Vijee Singhe'ba first married a semale Demon, through whose means he was able to overcome the sew that remained in Ceylon, after their first great overthrow by Bhooddha. I add the following particulars of his last visit.

Vol. VII.

D

Внооррил

^{*} Now called Mentott, near Manaar.

BHOODDHA returned for the third time to Ceylon, fifteen years after his first visit. He arrived on the day of the full moon of Esch, (July,) when the planet Ootra Saleh Nekketing presided. He visited fixteen different places in a Garda, (minute,) placed his foot on the Sammanelleh Sree Padé, and from thence ascended to Heaven, where he instructed the angels and apostles, and told them that his dostrines, or law, would exist in the world for 5500* years: and as the dostrines of three other Bhooddhas had prevailed in Ceylon previous to its being overrun by evil Spirits, therefore was it that his was to be then promulgated there.

BHOODDHA afterwards addressed himself to SFK-REREH DEVEE ENDRYA, saying, "I cede unto you the "Island of Ceylon. A Prince of the name of Vijes "Singhe'ba Commaroo will arrive there, with 700 "followers;" and giving him a thread and some blessed water, he added, "You will sprinkle all those people "with this water, and tie the thread round the Prince's "neck." He then called for an apostle named Mihendoo Terroonasse'e, and said to him, "You will "establish my law in the Island of Ceylon."

VIJEE SINGHE'BA, by means of the thread which BHOODDHA had ordered to be tied round his neck, is faid to have accomplished extraordinary deeds during the first days of his arrival; and afterwards to have been thereby enabled to transform into a rock, the femalement, Cowe'nee Jackinee, then his wise; that he might marry the Princess he had solicited for his Queen from the King of Pandoowas ratteh,† and who had then arrived with

 ⁵⁰⁰⁰ is the period mentioned in every other document I have seen on the subject

[†] Said to be on the Coast of Coromandel.

700 female followers, who became the wives of the 700 men that had accompanied the Prince to Ceylon.

VIJEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO, after his marriage with the daughter of the King of Pandoowas ratteh, was crowned by the name of VIJEE SINGHE'BA RAJA Roowo; and gave to his kingdom the name of Tammenam noowereh. This was the first establishment in Ceylon after the period formerly mentioned of 1845 years, during which it is said to have been overrun by Demons, &c.

DEWENEEPETISSEH RAJA was the first King of Ceylon who embraced the religion of BHOODDHA. Being fully instructed and versed in the law, he received the baptism of BHOODDHA, called Saranch Sieleh, in the presence of the apostle Mihendoo.

DEWENEEPETISSEH RAJA was the ninth King after VIJEE RAIA. The arrival of the latter in Ceylon, is mentioned in many authorities to have happened seven days after the ascension of Bhooddha. However, others will have it. the Dutch particularly, that the event took place 350 years after the birth of our Saviour; and another class, Christian natives of Ceylon, that Vijee Raja was crowned seventy-seven years after the birth of our Saviour. It would be vain to attempt reconciling those various opinions; nor, indeed, can it be attempted, but through the medium of their respective authorities, with a knowledge of the language of each. Those concerning BHOODDHA are, I imagine, the only records that can be fought after with any probability of real advantage to general chronology: but still it is to be questioned. tioned, how far this BHOODDHA is the one of the Hindoos. The Singhalais have two æras: one, that already described of Bhooddha; the other, the SOKKEH, OF SAKERAJEH WARDS-SEH, which dates from a period of 623 years after the ascension of Bhooddha; the last æra stands now at 1718. In all public papers that come from the Court of Candia, it is usually observed, that both are inserted. The Sakeh Waroofeh alludes to a date, at which there raged a famine in the island of Ceylon. This the writers of that time attributed to the impiety of the Emperor Kooda Walleh Gamba Ra-JA Roowo, whose neglect of the religion of BHOODDHA is related in the Maha Raja Wal-A like event is faid to have taken place about the same time on the continent of India, owing to the murder of a Brahmin, by a king named Sagel Noweren Raja.

Leawawa, fituated on the east side of Ceylon, formerly, and for a very considerable period, surnished a great part of the Candian dominions with salt; nor were any attempts, either of the Portuguesc or Dutch, to attack the Candians in this quarter, ever seconded by the inhabitants, who almost on every other occasion evinced a general want of loyalty and patriotism. This sidelity on the part of the inhabitants, has been owing entirely to the veneration and dread they entertain for the God of Kaddea Gamma, whose temple is situated near to Leawawa.

This God is called by the Singhalais, Kande Koomareyo; faid to have fix heads, twelve hands, &c. &c. and to hold a variety of instruments, which are particularly described. He is represented both in a standing posture, and mounted on a peacock, in the act of slying. It is said that Bhooddha, happening to be for a sew minutes in the Pagoda of Kaddergama, Kande

KANDE KOOMAREYO threw himself at his feet, and obtained from him extraordinary powers; which, amons other things, enabled him to cure all diseases, particularly those of the blood royal, and to perform various other miracles. BHOODDHA, at the same time, enjoined that he should not receive divine honors; and those which are now offered up at his temple, have been introduced by degrees, with the veneration originally decreed him. There is a temple built to him in the capital of the Candian dominions, but it is confidered as very inferior to that abovementioned. has a variety of civil officers, but no priests, belonging to it. There is one great festival here in the year, which takes place on the day of the new moon in July: . it concludes after a grand procession, (during which fome miraculous circumstances are supposed to have taken place,) with a variety of rich prefents; a certain part of which are fent to the King of Candia. shall particularly detail this ceremony on a future occasion. It may prove curious to mention, that BHOODD-HISTS, Musselmans, Brahmins, and Hindoos, of every description, attend this temple on all public occasions. The head officers are stiled, Mahabitmeh ralchammee, Koodabitmeh ralehammee, and Bafnaikeh ralehammee. Then follow Maha Kapooraleh, and Koodah Kapooralch.

School learned Hindoos, whom I lately met on Ceylon, from their superior respect for Kanda Koomanaro, expressed themselves highly indignant at the above ceremonies, but more particularly at the inferior character the God is supposed by the Broodenists to posses. This temple, they added, was held by them as the savourite one belonging to this God, and was therefore annually visited by great numbers of Hindoos. Of Kanda Koomanaro they gave me the following account: "Scanda Coomana" (according to the Sanscrit, the proper way of writing the

name) "is confidered in the Hindoo mythology as the fecond Son of SEVA, and faid to have sprung " from an affemblage of rays, emitted from his divine eyes; when, though immaterial and immortal, for "the purpose of bleffing the heavenly hosts, he ap-"peared under a visible or corporeal figure, on the 66 fummit of his Paradife, and Silver Mountain, called 66 Kylausum. Seva was brought by angels to create "this Son out of his divine rays, in consequence of "their cousins, three Affooras, or giants, named Soq-66 RAPADMA, TARAHNA, and SIMHA VAKTRA, having 66 imprisoned a vast number of angels in their cities, 66 fituated in the midst of oceans. Those Affooras had, "by mortification and facrifice, so pleased SEVA with 66 their faith and confidence in him, that they obtained " unufual bleffings, and were invelted with the power " of governing the 1008 Bramhaundas," or Macro-" cosms, each containing an assemblage of 14 regions, " celestial and terrestrial. They were likewise blessed 66 with a wishing chariot, called Indra yannam, by the "extraordinary virtues of which, they were enabled "to furvey the universe in one day. In order then " to destroy the above tyrannic giants, sprung forth "rays from the luminous eyes of Seva, which rays "assumed a form of six heads and twelve hands. 66 SCANDA, OF SCANDU COMAURA, fignifies a child 66 born of rays, emitted, or sprung forth, from the " Supreme Being.

"HE bears numerous names; fuch as SOOBR .M"HANYA, GOOHA COOMAURA, &c. &c. owing to
"feveral miraculous offices performed by him. He,
"by order of Seva, made an expedition against the
"cities of the above-mentioned great giants; and hav"ing warred successfully against them, extirpated the
"whole race. In a word, the eldest of the giants, hav"ing lost his monstrous figure, divided himself into
"two

^{*} Bramhaunda means literally, the great egg, but is synonymous to macrocosm, or great world or globe.

"two parts, under two different shapes; the Peacock, and the Fowl: the sormer served Scanda Cho"MAURA to ride on; the latter, as his standard: hence these two birds are sacred to him. At his return from the kingdoms of giants, Vishnoo, and other Deities that accompanied Scanda Coomaura, in"treated him to halt on the summit of a mountain, where they then placed a gemmed throne, on which he sat, and touched the ground with the sole of one of his divine seet. Hence that mountain became holy, bearing the name of Cadeer Caumam, which literally signifies a mountain radiant in beams and gems, then sound in the sountain there."

HAVING always conceived, from what I had an opportunity of reading and hearing, that BHOODDHA was one of the nine Avataurams, and that, notwithe standing his having contradicted, in his doctrines. fome of the most essential points in the divine authorities of the Hindoos, his praifes were nevertheless fung by some of the first order of Brahmins, I stood forth in afferting his dignity to the persons abovementioned; when I was informed, that he was not included in the nine Avataurs. They were as follows: VARANHA, NAURASINHA, COORMA, MATSYA, VAU-MANA, PARASOO-RAAMA, DASARADHA-RAAMA, BALA-RAAMA, and KRISHNA. The incarnation of Bhoop-DHA, it was added, arose in the following circumstances: " In former ages there were three giants, named " Trepoorus, (so entitled from their cities of 45 iron, brafs, and gold, which cities had wings, and "were ambulatory,) who were votaries to Seva, and continued to adore his facred emblem, Lingum, fo "that they were invincible. They often oppressed the Gods, who having befought Vishnoo, he asse fumed a form under the title of Bhooddha, who se entering the cities, wrought miracles, and preached 46 his seducing doctrine to the inhabitants, who em-66 braced D 4

** braced his religion, and became in every respect his proselytes. By this stratagem the Trepooras sell into the hands of Bhooddha, and were destroyed by Seva. (These particulars are said to be contained in Scanda poorauna.) Hence Bhooddha is considered as the promulgator of an heterodox religion. The adherents to Bhooddha are looked upon as insidels; and their religion, though commendable with respect to morality, yet is reckoned as one of the 339 sects, or branches of the well-known heresy, or rather schism, among the Hindoos."

III.

NARRATIVE OF A ROUTE

FROM

CHUNARGHUR TO YERTNAGOODUM,

IN THE

ELLORE CIRCAR.

BY CAPTAIN J. T. BLUNT.

THE Government having, in the year 1794, determined to employ me in exploring a route through that part of India which lies between Berar, Orissa, and the Northern Circars, some months necessarily elapsed before the requisite Purwannahs, from the Nagpour Government, could be obtained; when, at length, after receiving my instructions, and a party of a Jamadar and thirty Sepoys had been ordered to escort me, I commenced this expedition.

On the 28th of January, 1795: I left Chunarghur, and directing my course a litte to the wellward, ascended the hills at Jurna Gaut; where I entered upon a kind of table land, on which there appeared but little cultivation, and the few villages that occurred were poor. We crossed the little river Jurgo, which falls into the Ganges at a short distance to the eastward of Chunarghur, and then entered a thick forest, which continued as far as Sullafahur. At this place there is a barrier for the defence of a pass through the hills, which confilts of a rampart with round towers at intervals. The wall, besides including an angle at the bottom of the hills, is continued to the luminit of them, on the fouth fide, where it terminates among rocks and bushes. The west end of the works is terminated by a rocky precipice, and by the bed of the Jurgo, which has here been confiderably deepened by the sorrents. Sullafghur is the head of a Purgunnah

nah bearing the same name. Its fortifications were erected by a Rajah called Suckur Sing, about four centuries and a half ago.

On the 29th, our road led through the town and works of Suctafghur, beyond which we ascended a steep and rocky pass, called Barrah Gaut. When arrived at the top of it, I found the hills covered with a thick forest. On my right hand, for more than a mile, the Jurgo continued its course, nearly parallel to the road. There is a confiderable fall in it, called, by the natives, Seedanaut Jurna, from which the fource of the river cannot be far distant; but the fall is only in action during the rainy season. road now lay through woods, and rocky defiles, until we approached to Rajeghur, where our journey for this day terminated. Near this place were several smaller villages, but few signs of cultivation; and the general appearance of the country feemed to prognosticate a very wild region before us. There were no hills in fight, but we were on very elevated land; for we had ascended at least 300 yards, without meeting with any confiderable descent. Nothing worthy of remark presented itself at this village, but the ruins of an old fort, which had been built by a Zemeendar, who proving refractory in the days of Bulwant Sing,* it had been in consequence destroyed.

JAN. 30th. My journey continued about nine miles to a little village called Newary Pindarya, and, as yesterday, through a tnick sorest. We encamped at a tank and grove of Mowah trees, where abundance of game appeared in every direction around us; and the devastation which was visible in the crops, evidently shewed how much the peasants had suffered from the incursions of numerous herds of wild beatts from the neighbouring thickets.

IAN.

^{*} Bulwant Sing was the father of Cheyee Sing, the late Rajab of Benares.

JAN. 31st. After leaving Rajeghur, we crossed the Boker river, which divides the country called Chundail from the Purgunnah of Sullasghur. The same wild country continued, although the soil was somewhat less rocky. For the last two days, the hoar frost had been so sharp as to blight the leaves on the trees, and had very much injured the crops. Low hills now appeared to the southward in even ridges.

FEB. 1st. A march of ten miles brought us this day to Bilwanya, a poor straggling village, consisting of about forty huts. No supplies of grain of any kind were to be had here; and although we had passed a considerable tract of cultivated country, I was told it would be the last we should meet with for some time. The latter part of the road had dwindled to a mere foot path; and I was informed, that we could expect nothing but the wildest and most deso-late regions for a considerable distance.

THE natives of this country call themselves Chundails, and are a tribe of Rajepoots. The present Rajah, whose name is FUTIEH BAHADUR, resides at Rajepour, about ten coss west of Bidjyghur. The country, I was informed, had become tributary to the Rajahs of Benares in the days of BULLWANT SING, who made a conquest of it from Sucdust Narain, the great grandsather of the present Rajah of Chundail.

It had been with difficulty that we procured provisions for the last two days; but, notwithstanding our supplies had been sparing, we got wherewithal to satisfy us. This made me seriously attend to the reports of the nature of the country through which my route was to be continued; and finding that no Bazar was to be met with, nor even supplies of grain, in

any way, until we should arrive at Shawpour, the Singrowla Rojah's capital, it imposed on me the necessity of collecting and carrying an adequate quantity; in order that the want of food should not increase the difficulties which might occur in exploring a desolate and mountainous wilderness.

FEB. 2d. Our tract this day was in a defile of thick bushes, and the ground was level for the first two miles; when the country became uneven, and more rugged, as we went on; until we reached the fummit of a very large acclivity, called Kimoor-gaut. The descent from this was so craggy and steep, as to be barely passable for our cattle. With much difficulty the party got down, and proceeded through defiles among small rocky hills, and thick woods, as far as the little village of Selpy, confisting only of four poor huts, situated on the north bank of the river Soane. To the westward of Kimoor-gaut, there was a peaked hill, confiderably elevated, which presenting a favourable fituation for vicwing the country, and the course of the river Soane, I inquired of a Cole villager if there was any path to afcend it: he informed me there was, and directed me with three or four of my attendants in the ascent. After an hour's hard labour, in climbing over rocks, and forcing our way through the thickets, we reached the summit of the hill; when our toil was abundantly compenfated by a most romantic view of the river meandering through extensive wilds; the fun just rising, and lighting up the woods with his rays, and the beautiful tints re-flected by the water, confiderably added to the splendour of the scenery.

On surveying the spot where we stood, I observed three large rocks, with a kind of cell within them, and a cavity in front, that was filled with water, accumulated from the dew that had fallen from the trees which

which hung over it. Upon inquiring of our guide concerning the place, I found that the fanciful notions of the Hindoos had made it the abode of RAM. LITCHMUN, and SEETA,* who, in their travels, were faid to have rested in this place for a night; and the Cole observed to me, that the water I perceived in the hollow of the rock, was the same they had bathed their feet in. My curiofity being fatisfied, we descended from the hill, and resumed our journey, which terminated this day on the fouth bank of the Soane, at a little village called Corary, confisting only of two huts, and five inhabitants of the Cole tribe. The bed of the river was about half a mile wide, and full of quick-fands; but the stream was not more than a hundred yards broad, and flowed rapidly, with about three feet water in the deepest part. Many impressions of the feet of wild beasts were here visible.

Being this day at a loss for a place to encamp in, and not wishing to injure the Coles by encamping on the little spots which, with much care and toil, they had cleared and cultivated, we took up our abode, for the remainder of the day and night, in the jungle. We found here the remains of two Hindoo temples, which had been dedicated to Bhavany, with many figures; but time had almost consumed the buildings, and had so wasted the images, that the attribute of each was scarcely discernible.

FEB. 3d. The road continued between two ranges of small hills, and through a forest, consisting of Saul trees, Seetfal, and Bamboos. The Mowah tree was here and there seen, and rarely the Burr and Peepul; but the stems of all the large trees were choaked with underwood. We arrived this day at Aumrye, a village consisting of about sisteen huts; and I was informed, that it was the last abode of men I should meet with for some distance. A part of the Burdy Rajah's

Rajah's country is near this place, intermixed with the Company's territory;* and the Purgunnah of Agowry projects here so as to include the village of Aumrye. We encamped near the old site of the village, in which we saw the remains of an aqueduct, that had formerly conveyed water, from a fall in an adjoining rivulet, to the village; but was now covered with long grass and bushes.

FEB. 5th. Having halted the preceding day at Aumrye, we continued our route through a wilderness, continually ascending and descending over little hills. The frost, which had now continued fix days, having blighted the leaves on the trees, my camels were consequently distressed for forage, and there was nothing to offer the cattle, but a kind of long grafs, + which being rank, they are but sparingly of it. Our march this day terminated at Dar Nulla, a rivulet of clear water, and we encamped in the jungle. I had observed, in the course of the journey, several Saul trees, which the hill people had tapped for the refin they contain. A tribe, called Karwars. are faid to inhabit these hills. They had shifted the fite of the village of Darr, about two miles to the eastward, for retirement. I was likewise informed of two iron mines which are fituated about two cofs to the eastward of this place.

Feb. 6th. After proceeding about three miles through a thick forest, we croised the Joogamahal Hills; the ascents and descents over which were frequent and rugged. We encamped this day on the banks of the Guttaun, which was the largest river I had met with since crossing the Soane. The bed of it was full of the sinest blue and red slate; and a stream persectly

^{*} To those who are conversant with Indian geography, or have ever inspected a map in which the boundaries are particularly laid down between the territories of the several powers, this will not appear extraordinary.

[†] This grass appeared to be of the same kind which I had seen in the Mysore country; it has a strong aromatic smell, is somewhat prickly, and grows very tall.

persectly transparent, flowing rapidly over it in unequal depths, had a pleasing and beautiful effect.

FEB. 7th. As we proceeded this day, we were frequently compelled to lop the jungle, to enable our cattle to pass, which occasioned much delay. country was very hilly, confisting, for the most part, of separate hillocks, intersected by ravines; but we had the comfort of an open space to encamp in on the banks of the Kungass river. At a short distance from our encampment, there was a little field cultivated with gram; and I was told that a village belonging to the Karwars, called Udgegoor, was fituated only one cofs distant to the eastward. While my tent was pitching, curiofity prompted me to vifit it. I found it confisted only of fix rude huts, which had been built in a recess of the hills. Three men with myfelf approached, with the utmost precaution, to prevent alarm; but on discovering us, the villagers instantly fled. I stopped to observe them, and perceived that they were almost naked. The women. affisted by the men, were carrying off their children, and running with speed to hide themselves in the woods. I then approached the huts, and found fome gourds, that had been dried, for the purpose of holding water; a bow, with a few arrows, scattered upon the ground; and some sowls as wild as the people who had fled. After leaving their huts, I perceived a man upon a distant hill, and sent a Cole villager, who had accompanied us from Aumrye, to endeavour to appeale his fears, and to perfuade the people to return to their dwellings. The Cole expressed some alarm at going by himself; but, upon my affuring him of affiftance, in case of his being attacked, he advanced a short distance, and hallooed to the man on the hill, who, after some time had been spent in parley, faid the villagers would return to their huts on our quitting them. I immediately retired, leaving the Cole with instructions to inquire if any grain could be procured. He returned about noon, and told

told me that, if I would send some cowries, it was probable we might get a little grain; but nothing elfe fuitable to our wants. This I had provided for, and fent him again; when, after two hours, he returned accompanied by two of the villagers, who were almost naked, but were armed with bows and arrows, and a hatchet each. They brought with them about ten feers of Chenna gram.* I presented them a piece of red cloth, with which they feemed well pleased; and, returning to their huts, they soon afterwards brought me a present of three fowls. One of these was of the reversed feather tribe; and my people immediately called it the hupfy moorghy, or Caffre fowl. The panic which, on our arrival, the mountaineers had been impressed with, having now subsided, I asked the two men, if they would accompany us a part of our next day's journey. They appeared to be somewhat alarmed at the proposal, but consented:

FEB. 8th. We had proceeded about a mile when the two mountaineers joined us. Their delay had been occasioned by the cold; for having no clothes, and being abundantly supplied with suel from the woods, they had fat round a fire during the night. They came armed, as on the preceding day, with bows and arrows, and a hatchet each; the latter of which they used with much dexterity in lopping the jungle for us. About two miles from the Guttaun river, we came to a very steep and rugged defile, called Bildwarry Gaut; but the road, after descending it, continued good as far as the Bejool river; on the fouth bank of which we encamped. We had passed in our track two little dwellings of the mountaineers, who, notwithstanding our efforts, united to those of the two men who accompanied us from the last village, to appease their alarm, had immediately fled.

Тнв

^{*} A kind of pulse with which horses are usually fed in Hindoostan. (Cicer arictinum, Lin.) The secr is a measure weighing about two pounds.

THE inhabitants of these hills acknowledge allegiance to a vassal of the Burdy Rajah's, who resides at Budderry, a village situated four coss west of Udgegoor. His name is Bunhoo; and he has a Jagheer of twelve villages, in consideration of his bringing to the affistance of the Burdy Rajah fifty men in time of warfare. The Karwars are divided into many sects, among which the following were named to me, viz. the Pautbundies, the Teerwars, the Sefahars, and Durkwars. There were no villages, and few inhabitants, in that space of country to the castward, which lay between my track and the river Soane; but to the westward, a few villages were said to be situated, of which little account was made; for the inhabitants. who are fond of a roving life, are continually changing the places of their abode. The Bejool river rifes in the districts of Purrury and Gundwally. In the former is a large town, bearing the same name, situated about twenty-five coss south-west of Udgegoor.

In the course of my inquiries into the state of this wild country, my attention was occasionally directed to the language of the mountaineers, which induced me to collect a small specimen of it; but as the only method I had of acquiring this, was by pointing to the object of which I required the name, the following were the only words which, after much pains, I could collect:

KARWARS. ENGLISH. Gopuckney. Food. Goburro. To sit down Minka. Chargur. A Goat, Uggundewich. Fire, Kerona. A Tiger Mujjarak. A Hut, ENGLISTÀ Var. VII.

ENGLISH.

A Horse, - - Chekut.

The Moon, - - Chadermah.

The Sun, - - Soorjundewtah.

Our provisions being nearly consumed, it was with much satisfaction that I understood our next day's journey would bring us to a village in the territory of the Singrowla Rajah; where, if the inhabitants did not abandon it, we should be abundantly supplied with grain.

FEB. 9th. We had not advanced far on our march, when we perceived the Bickery Hills, which were the largest I had seen since leaving Kimoor-gaut: I was informed that they extended to Gyah, and that Bidjyghur* is visible from their summits on a clear After skirting along the east side of these hills for about five miles, we passed through them at a narrow defile, called Bulgaut, and then entered upon the Singrowla Rajah's territory. The country now opened into an extensive plain, though still wild, and uncultivated. We stopped at the village of Oury, the inhabitants of which are mountaineers. ALLAHAD MHATOE, a vassal to the Singrowla Rajah, was in charge of this place, and of the pass we had come through. It was not till four hours after our arrival, that we procured a supply of grain, although much courtely had been used to obtain it; for the inhabitants having fled on our approach, it was with difficulty they could be prevailed on to return to their dwellings: this, however, they all did before night.

FEB. 10th. We proceeded in a plain, about ten miles wide, but covered with a forest, and very wild. As we drew near to the village of Gursery, the country

^{*} A strong hill fort, situated about forty miles S. S. E. from Chanter glace.

country opened, and appeared cultivated. This village confifted of about fifty huts, and here we procured grain in abundance.

FEB. 11th. This day we arrived at Shawpour, where the Rajah of Singrowla resides. The first part of our road was through a level country, cultivated near the villages, but beyond half a mile from the road entirely waste. The last three miles were through a thick forest, in which were two or three narrow defiles, between high banks of earth, and senced on each side with bamboos.

Shawrour, the capital of Singrowla, is fituated in a fine plain, amidit lofty ranges of hills. It is a large straggling town, with a little fort, built of rubblestone and mud, to which, at this time, the Rajah was making some improvements. The Rhair, a considerable river, runs by the fouth fide of the town. The ftream, which is about one hundred yards wide, and four feet in depth, dashes with great rapidity over a bed of rock. Nothing but the rocks, indeed, prevents its being navigable for large boats. This river rifes in the hills and forests of Surgooja, and, after being joined by the Bijool and Gutaun, falls into the Soane near Agowry. The plain in which Shawpour is fituated, is tolerably fertile, and only wants inhabitants, and a good government, to render it more productive. Iron abounds in Singrowla, the value being from eight annas to a rupee the maund, according to the quality of the metal.

The inhabitants of this town, alarmed at the fight of the English sepoys, whom they now beheld for the first time, had most of them sted on our arrival; and by night the Rajah's capital was almost described. When

the camp was pitched, I fent a messenger to the fort, with a letter which Mr. Duncan had kindly favoured me with, recommending me strongly to the Rajah's care. In about a quarter of an hour he returned, to inform me, that the Rajah was absent, being gone to Ramghur, to bring home the daughter of the Chittra Rajah, to whom he had been espoused. BULBUDDER Shaw, his uncle, then took charge of the letter, and dispatched it to his nephew, whose return was soon expected. Towards the evening a message was sent to me, requesting that I would not move from Shawpour until the Rajah should arrive; for that no steps could be taken to affist me until the Rajah himself should have arrived, and received from my own hand a paun, as a pledge of amity. To this I answered, that I hoped the Rajah's return would not long be delayed, for that it would be very inconvenient to me to wait beyond two or three days.

FEB. 12th. This morning some matchlockmen came in from all quarters, and affembled in the fort, and I foon after learned that the Rajah was expected to arrive He had fent a message to Bulbudder about noon. Shaw, to defire he would meet him, with all the people he could collect, near the entrance of the town; with a view, no doubt, to impress me with an idea of his confequence, by the number of his retinue. But the alarm which my arrival had created, had almost frustrated their intentions, and not more than lifty persons could be collected. About noon the found of tomtoms announced the approach of RAJAH AJEET SING; and foon after, with my telescope, I beheld the whole cavalcade. The bridegroom, mounted on an elephant. was followed by the bride in a covered dooly; and about two hundred men carried the dowry he had received on his

The custom of presenting pain, or beetle, is uniformal throughout flindoostan. This ceremony, and that of the interchange of turbans are considered as high pledges of friendship.

his marriage. The party had no fooner arrived at the fort, than it was made known to me that the Rajah intended to visit me that evening.

I HAD already, in consequence of the rapidity of the Rajah's return, and the number of men who had affembled in the fort, begun to entertain some suspicion of his being alarmed. His deportment shewed that this supposition was not unfounded; for he had no fooner entered my tent, and mutual falutations were over, than he earnestly solicited a paun from my hand, as a pledge of amity, and token of my good intentions towards him. Having presented him a paun, I immediately informed him, that I had been deputed by the British Government on some business in the Mahratta country, and had accordingly taken my route through his country to Ruttunpour. He appeared on this to be relieved from a good deal of embarrassment. I next made fome inquiry as to the journey he had just terminated, and congratulated him on the event of his marriage. Having represented to him that my business was urgent, and would admit of no delay, I told him that we were in want of provisions, and guides, for which I was ready to pay an equitable price; and that I looked up to him for every affiftance he could render me, in profecuting my journey through his territory to the Corair Rajah's frontier. To these requisitions he seemed to assent; and, after affuring me that every thing should be prepared for my departure in the course of the ensuing day, he took his leave, and returned to his dwelling.

FEB. 13th. This morning, about nine o'clock, AJEET SING came again to visit me. At the same time two of my Hircarrahs came, and reported to me, that no preparations were making to enable me to proceed on the following day; which being immediately communicated to the Rajah, and his people, a Brahmen was soon after introduced to me, by name Shalleram, E. 3 who

who was the Zemindar of that part of Singrowla through which my route would lie. AJEET SING then informed me, that he had given him orders to accompany us to the frontier of Corair; and being upon good terms with the Rajah of that country, he had written to him, recommending me strongly to his care and attention. He added, that I need be under no apprehension about taking grain and guides from Shawpour, as SHALIKRAM would fee that I should be abundantly supplied on the way, and would procure guides from the villages. This matter being adjusted, I was next made acquainted with all the little jealousies and disputes that subsisted between AJEET SING and all the neighbouring Rajahs, but which I declined having any concern with. The next subject of discourse was the nature of the country before us, and the difficulty of the road was represented to me as insurmountable; added to which, the Mahrattas being at variance with the Rajah of Corair, and the country confequently in confusion, I should be distressed both for guides and To this information I replied, that what he represented to me might be strictly true; but that the nature of my business was such, that I could not relinquish it before I had made every attempt to accomplish it; and finally, that it was my determination to depart from Shawpour the next day. Here the interview ended, and the Rajah took his leave.

FEB. 14th. In the morning I departed, accompanied by Shalikram, and we-proceeded about fix cofs to the village of Cuttoly, near which we encamped, on the banks of the Myar river. The clear frosty weather had now left us, and the sky was overcast, and seemed to threaten rain. Towards the evening, Shalikram, who had gone into the village, sent us about ten seers of grain, which were tendered for sale at an enormous price. Upon inquiring of him the reason of our not being better supplied, he made many frivolous excuses; but I then discovered that the real cause

cause originated with the Rajah, who, being chagrined at my determination to proceed, and having expected, from the unfavourable description he had given me of the road and country, that I should have been induced to return to Benares, had resolved to cut off our supplies of grain.

FEB. 15th. WE proceeded to the village of Deykah, fituated close under some very high hills. In its vicinity were several other villages; and the country, to a confiderable extent, was in a high state of cultivation. I was much vexed to find that SHLIKRAM shewed a determined intention of carrying into effect the Rajah's designs; for, although the village was full of grain, the people would not fell us a particle. As my people were now becoming clamorous for want of food, I fent for Shalikram, and told him, that it was my determination to have fifteen days provisions from the village before I left it. He appeared to be fomewhat perplexed at this; but knowing that he had driven away the inhabitants from the village, he yet conceived that I would not venture to touch the property in it during the absence of the proprietors, and without their consent. But to be starved in a land of plenty, by his shallow devices, would have been ablurd in the extreme; to I took him with a party of my people to the village, and went directly to a large hut, which was pointed out to me as a granary, but which he declared contained no grain. On opening the door, we perceived many large jars of unbaked earth, the mouths of which being closed, we could not fee what they contained, until the preffing appetite of a hungry sepoy urged him to break one of the tars with the butt end of his musket; when immediately a quantity of the finest rice tumbled out upon The difcovery of to palpable a cheat fully convinced me of the Rajah's eyil intentions, and that no further reliance was to be put in Shalikram. Finding now fome weights and leales in the hut, we proceeded, without further delay, to weigh fifty maunds of k. 4 rice

rice and gram, equal to about ten days confumption; for which I paid SHALIKRAM at the rate of twenty-five feers the rupee, which was fixty per cent. dearer than we had paid for grain at Shawpour. He received the money in the most fullen manner, apparently highly discontented at the discovery we had made.

FEB. 16th. It was necessary to halt this day, in order to divide and pack the grain, as well as to devise the means of carrying it. While my people were thus employed, I discovered that some Hindoo temples, called Rowanmarra, of great antiquity, and formed in the folid rock, were at no great distance.* But the weather proving rainy, I was obliged to defer my vifit to this place until the afternoon; when I fet out, and proceeding about half a mile through a thick forest, arrived at the village of Marra, near to which is a fmall rocky hill, covered with many little temples, facred to Mahadeo. I continued to force my way through the jungle, for about a mile and a half, to a little recess at the foot of the hills; where, after clambering to a confiderable height, I discovered a Hindoo temple, formed in the fide of a rock, the base of which was 50 feet by 45, and $15\frac{1}{2}$ in height. The shafts of the pillars were very much diminished, and appeared as if attempts had been made to destroy them. The only Mooruts (images) which I could discover, were RAWUN, t with twenty arms, a spear in one of his left hands, furrounded by all his warriors and attendants, whose contest with RAMA is detailed in the Mahabarat. Opposite to him was the confort of Siva, whose leading name in this part of India is Bha'va'nı and upon her right hand flood GANAISH, the Hindoo God

^{*} These temples appeared to answer to the description of a place which Mr. Duncan and Lieutenant Wilford had, previous to my leaving Benares, mentioned to me as worthy of my attention, and which they distinguished by the name of Gupt Cácki. I cannot, however, pretend to determine whether it was the same place.

† 11 mdop Deity.

God of Wisdom, whose elephant's head, the symbol of sagacity, we could not fail of discerning. In the interior part of the temple was a cell, evidently set apart for Mahadeo; but the lingam was not there, although the place where it had formerly stood was visible. Other cells on each side appeared, which seemed to be the abodes of numerous bats. To the north-west of this temple is another of less dimensions; and between the two is a cell, which had been evidently intended for the residence of a sakeer. On the way from the village of Marra, I crossed a spring that issues from the neighbouring hills, and, my guide informed me, slows all the year.

HAVING taken a sketch of this very curious place, I departed in fearch of another, called Beyer-marra, nearer to Deykah, and fituated on the north fide of the rock and village of Marra. The access to it lay between two very high hills; and it was with infinite labour that we clambered over the rocks, and forced our way through the jungle that led to it. We had no sooner arrived within fight of the place, than our guide advised us to proceed with caution, for it was oftentimes the abode of bears, and wild hogs: we did not, however, meet with any. This temple is cut out of the folid rock in the fide of a hill, and confifts of two stories, divided into many small cells. We saw here no images; but there was a Kulja, or kind of altar, upon which I was informed the Hindoos made their offerings to the Deity when matried. It appeared to be very aged, for the external parts of it were much wasted. This place was so full of earth, and overgrown with buthes, that it was with difficulty we crept in; and I was disappointed in every attempt I made to discover any writing or inteription. Some of the pillars had been sculptured; and I could perceive on one of them the appearance of two birds uniting their bills, over fomething which I could not well make out: but it was of a circular form.

THE measurements, and a sketch, which I took of this place, employed me till near the close of the day; when we directed our way back to camp, where I arrived about feven o'clock in the evening, much fatigued with the occupations of the day. But I had barely rested myself a little, and sat down to my dinner, when a man, who had gone a little way into the jungle, came running to me, and reported, that he had discovered a body of armed men in a ravine within fifty yards of our camp. That upon his inquiring of them the cause of their being there, he had been ordered in a very peremptory manner to depart, and had thought it expedient to report the circumstance to me with as little delay as possible. Having finished my meal, I ordered the tents to be removed, from the skirts of the jungle, to an open situation; and sending then for Shalikram, I demanded of him the cause of the armed men being assembled, and who they were. He told me they were the advanced guard of Bulbudder Shaw's army, which had left Shawpour the day after us, upon an expedition to plunder some villages contiguous to the Rajah's eastern frontier. I observed to him, that their being posted so near us had a very mysterious appearance; and told him, that if I observed them approach any nearer, during the night, I should not hesitate to attack them. He defired me to rest perfectly satisfied that they would remain quiet in their present situation, and departed apparently with the intention of giving them a caution on that head.

ATTER the duplicity the Rajah had shewn in endeavouring to impede my progress, I conceived that any thing SHALIKRAM might say, or do, could not be relied on; and by the intellegence I gained from an Hirkarrah, whom I had sent disguised to watch the motions of the armed party in the ravine, I had every reason to believe that it was their intention to attack me on the first savourable opportunity. We lay down, therefore, under under arms, with our baggage packed; but nothing occurred to disturb us during the night.

FEB. 17th. WE proceeded this day to the village of Derry. The forest during the march was so thick, that it was necessary to cut it, to let the cattle pass through. We found, however, a clear spot to encamp on near the village, which confifted only of about twenty poor huts, and, with the exception of a blind old man, who was the first of the Goand mountaineers I met with, was quite desolate. The inhabitants had all fled into the hills and wilds; having first thrown their property, consisting of a good deal of dry grain, and some cotton, into a ravine. I would not allow any of my people to touch it, nor to go into the village, having some hopes that the proprietors might be induced to return. But in this expectation I was disappointed; for, with the exception of two huge black bears, whole uncouth dalliance upon an adjoining rock might have forced a fmile from the gravest countenance, I saw no living creature at this place during the remainder of the day.

Shalikram, who arrived about noon, brought intelligence, that Bulbudder Shaw was encamped at Moory; and that it was his intention to attack and plunder some villages on the ensuing night. Upon interrogating him as to the nature of my next day's journey, he informed me, that I should quit the territory of the Singrowla Rajah, and enter upon Corair. He advised me to examine the gauts which divide the two countries; for the mountains being very high, and the ascent over them exceedingly difficult, he apprehended they might prove impassable for our cattle. Upon urging him to give a more explicit account of the passes, I sound that one would be easier of ascent than the rest, although the road to it was more circuitous. Shalikram now requested his dismassal,

and faid, that, as I should quit the Rajah's territory the ensuing day, I should have no further occasion for his services. Having then delivered to me two men as guides, to direct me to the gauts, he took his leave, and departed.

As any delay in my present situation might be attended with inconvenience, I resolved to visit the nearcst gaut of Punkyputter this evening, with a view to ascertain if it was passable for the cattle. Setting out accordingly at three P. M. I crossed the Myar river four times, and leaving it, with a very lofty rock, called Lilcauntdeo, on my right hand, I entered-the gaut, where, after ascending over fix ranges of hills, and crossing the beds of several torrents, I faw enough to convince me that it would be impaffable for my cattle. The bed of the Myar river is very rocky, and unequal in its depth of water, which in some places, from the descent being very abrupt, is feen dashing over the rocks; and as the friction occasioned by the rapidity of the stream makes them very flippery, the passage of the river, though not more than twenty yards wide, is very dangerous. This gaut is at least eight miles from Derry. Fine Saul timber is produced in these forests; and I obferved fome Mowatrees of very large growth, and abundance of bamboos. The hills abound with very plentiful fprings of the clearest water. On my return I met a tiger, and faw numerous impressions of tigers' It was nearly dark by the time I reached my tent, and I went to rest with the intention of going round in the morning to the other gaut.

FEB. 19th. We let off at the dawn of day, and, after proceeding about fix miles through a very thick jungle, arrived at the village of Jeerah, from which the Goands had fled, and taken refuge upon the hills to the northward of the village. By looking with attention, I could differ them among the rocks and bulkes; but all our endeavours to procure

any communication with them were ineffectual: for when we attempted to approach them, they immediately retired further into the wilds. After leaving Feerah, we soon came to the foot of Heyte Gaut, where the found of human voices apprifed us that travellers were near. The found increasing as we advanced, we foon after met two men, who were conducting a loaded bullock down the gaut. As I was here considering by what method we should get the cattle up a very sleep place, and looking around for a more accessible part, I perceived a Goofaign contemplating, with trembling folicitude, a poor bullock that had fallen down the steep, and which appeared to be too much hurt to be able to proceed any further. I made my people assist in taking off the load, and then interrogated the Goofaign, as to the nature of the country above the gaut. He faid the natives were mountaineers, and at all times very shy; but that the depredations of the Mahrattas had compelled them mostly to abandon their villages: that in the village above the gaut, I should find a few inhabitants; and he would send a man, who had accompanied him from thence, to guide us to it, and who would defire the people to be under no alarm at our approach. further told me, that a little way up the gaut, I should meet with another Goofaign, who was better acquainted with the country than he was, and would give me every information in his power. This was a pleafing circumstance, and gave me great encouragement.

As I began now to ascend the mountains of Corair, it was with vast satisfaction, that I found the gaue practicable, although labouring under many difficulties, from the great length and steep acclivity of the ascent. We ascended more than 300 yards in perpendicular height above Singrowla; and yet the country before us appeared considerably elevated. On approaching the village of Ootna, where we encamped, the initialitants, to the number of about twenty, came

out to gaze at us. As they appeared to be impressed with a good deal of surprise at our appearance, I desired the guide to assure them, that it was not our intention to do them the smallest injury; but that we should be much obliged to them, in case they had any grain, if they would bring some for sale. After staring at us for nearly two hours, they retired to the village, and soon after brought us twenty seers of rice, and two sowls of the curled feather tribe, which they sold us for about sour annas worth of couries. They now informed me, that we had a much more difficult ascent to encounter than any we had yet met with.

This village confisted only of about fix huts; but a confiderable space of land, in which rice was cultivated, had been cleared around it. I found here an iron mine, which had been recently worked; but the habitations, and forges, of the people, who had smelted the ore, were desolate. The rocks in this country are mostly granite, and the soil red clay.

ABOUT noon I perceived the other Goofaign coming down the pass, and he soon after came to my tent. As he appeared to be very languid from an ague fit that had just left him, I made him sit down on the ground; and collected from him intelligence which proved afterwards of much use to me in my progress to Ruttunpour. He told me that the country was very poor, and travelling in it exceedingly difficult, particularly for all kinds of cattle. That the paths being rarely frequented, were almost entirely overgrown with bushes; but that I should get plenty of dry grain, provided the inhabitants, who had fately fled with their property into the hills and woods, to avoid being plundered by the Mahratta army, could be found. The Rajak of Corair, he faid, was besieged in a little mud fort at his capital Sonehut; and had, at this time, no influence

iд

in the country: he therefore earnestly recommended to me to pass, if possible, while the Mahratta army was there; as it would effectually secure me from any measures which the Rajah might be inclined to make use of, to impede or molest us. I selt myself much obliged to the Goosaign for the information he had afforded me. He was, I found, a native of Benares, and had come into these wilds to procure lac; a quantity of which he had purchased from the Chohan mountaineers, for a little salt and cloth, and was carrying it to his country. He added, that the satigue and trouble he had endured in the course of this traffic, was such that he would no longer continue it.

HAVING dismissed the Goofaign with a small present, I fent a party of my people to examine Ootna Gaut. They returned in about half an hour, and reported, that, unless the stones should be removed, and the earth smoothed in some places, it would be impossible to get the cattle up the gaut. Finding it was likely to be an arduous undertaking, I fent for the head man of the village, who was a Gautea," and asked him if he could afford me any affiltance in ascending the pals. He replied, that, without invoking the Deity who presides over these mountains, and sacrificing to him a gelded goat, and a cock, we should never be able to " furmount the difficulties before us. Being anxious, at all events, to profecute my journey, I felt no inclination to argue with him on the propriety of this measure. Upon asking him at what place it was usual to perform the ceremony, and when the facrifice would be most acceptable, he replied, that the name of the Deity was LILCAUNTBEO; that he resided on the high rock which I have before mentioned in exploring Punkyputter Gaut; but, to prevent my being delayed, if I would intrust the facrifice to him, he would take the

^{*} An inhabitant of the gauts, or passes.

the earliest opportunity of performing it; and he did not doubt, it would have all the effect that could be defired. Having satisfied the Gautea's prejudice in this matter, he readily promised to render me every affistance in his power, with the villagers, in the morning.

FEB. 20th. I set out to ascend Ooina Gaut, and, after proceeding about a mile, arrived at the foot of it, where I found the Chohans had already been at work. with my Lascars and Coolies, to render it accessible. Having unloaded the cattle, we began to ascend a very steep and rugged hill, making an angle with the horizon of about 75 degrees. The stones in it are placed somewhat like steps, and upon these, merr and cattle are obliged carefully to place their feet, and remove them from stone to stone. In two places, where the ascent was very steep, and the stones far afunder, it was very dangerous; but, by the united exertions of the Sepoys, followers, and Chohans, we had the good fortune to furmount every difficulty, and to reach the top of the gaut without accident. Being much fatigued by the exertion, we only proceeded about two miles further, and encamped in the forest near a rocky hole in a small nulla, that was full of water. The Chohans, who, during our short intercourse with them, had become acquainted with us, now brought in small quantities of grain to barter; and I at length prevailed on the Gautea to provide us with two guides, to accompany us on the following morning.

FEB. 21st. Our route this day was continued over craggy rocks; sometimes in deep gulleys and defiles, or on the edge of the precipices. I met with only one hut, which had been deserted, until we arrived at the village of Nutwye, where I perceived the inhabitants packing up their property, and hurrying away: nor was it till after three hours had passed in endeavours to pacify them, that we could get any of them to come near us.

However

However, conciliatory measures at length prevailed; when we procured from them nearly a day's consumption in grain, and they relieved the guides who had accompanied us from *Ootna*.

FEB. 22d. The road was not better than that we had travelled on the preceding day; and it cost us infinite labour and trouble to get the cattle down precipices, and over such craggy rocks, and rugged paths, as haraffed the whole party exceedingly. After proceeding about three miles from Nutwye, I observed the little hamlet of Bugrody, which was defolate, on our left. Although the whole distance marched was but feven miles, we did not arrive at the village of Chundah until the day was on the decline. We found liere only two poor huts, and these had been deserted. Towards the evening, a Byraghy mendicant made his appearance, and brought with him a few of the Chohans, who complained that some of my people had taken grain out of the huts. I directed a diligent fearch to be made; but, after opening every man's bundle, and not discovering the thief, I tendered the Chokans a rupec, conceiving that the quantity of grain, if any, which had been taken, could not exceed that value. They, however, declined taking the money. I then pressed them to sell us some of their grain, and to relieve our guides; but they stole away into the woods, and I faw them no more.

FEB. 23d. Soon after leaving Chundah, it began to rain in small showers, but the weather was fair at intervals. In the night the rain had fallen very heavy, accompanied by a high wind: the road, which was bad enough in dry weather, was, in consequence, rendered so slippery, that our toil was considerably increased; and we did not reach the village of Purryhud till afternoon, although the distance to that place was not more than seven miles and a half. We surprised on our journey a party of Chehans, who had Vol. VII.

we were told, to avoid being molested by the Mahrattas. The whole party might have consisted of about fifty men, women, and children, who no sooner perceived us, than they ran off, howling and shrieking, into the woods. Their slight was so precipitate, that they lest all their property behind them, which consisting only of dry grain, packed in leaves, and which being slung upon bamboos, they could easily have carried off. I was careful that none of their bundles should be touched, in hopes that, when they should recover from their panic, they might be induced to bring some of the grain to Purryhud for sale; but in this expectation I was disappointed.

The rain, on our arrival, came on so heavy, accompanied by a high wind, that it was with difficulty we could get a fire kindled, and a scarry meal prepared, to relieve the pressure of hunger. As any information regarding the situation of the contending parties at Sonehut, now only five miles distant, became of much consequence for me to attain, I sent a Hirkarrah, accompanied by one of our Chohan guides, with a letter to the Mahratta officer in command, and likewise one to the Rajah. Before night, I received an answer from each party; that from the Mahrattas very civil; and the Rajah, who had just concluded a cessation of hostilities, sent guides to conduct me to Sonehut.

FEB. 24th. The rain did not abate till about noon, at which time, being anxious to reach Sonehut, I moved on. But we had scarcely marched two miles, when it began to pour so heavily, that it was with difficulty we could proceed any further. Finding some deserted huts within a mile of Sonehut, we all crept into them, to avoid the inclemency of the weather; for the ground was so wet, that it was impossible to pitch a tent.

a tent. We made fires to dry our clothes, and remained all huddled together in the Chohans' dwellings until next day.

FEB. 25th. This morning, as the weather cleared up, I discovered the Rajah's fort upon an eminence to the N. E. of us, with about forty huts to the southward of it. The Mahrattas were encamped about a mile to the westward of the fort, and appeared to have been much incommoded by the rain; but the weather being now fair, and hostilities at an end, they were preparing to march.

ABOUT 2 P. M. the Rajah fent me word that he would visit me; but he did not come until the evening. at which time I was examining the road for the commencement of our next day's march. However, he stayed till I returned to my tent, where the interview took place. RAM GURREEB SING, the Rajah of Corair, appeared to be about fixty years of age: he was a man of low stature, very dark, and his seatures had quite the character of the Chohan mountaineer. He came accompanied by his fon, his Killadar, a Bogale Rajepoot, and a Sirdar of some auxiliaries who had come to his affishance from Nigwanny Coaty. He appeared to be of a mild and affable disposition; but our falutations were no fooner over, than the Killadar very abruptly demanded a present of me for his master. Of this I took no notice; and immediately began asking them a variety of questions concerning the late contest between the Rajah and the Mahrattas; when the substance of the information I received was as follows: That fince the Mahrattas had established their government in Ruttunpoor, and Bogalecund, they had demanded a tribute from the Chohan Rajah of Corair, which, after much contention, was settled at 200 rupees: but that RAM GURREEB had demurred paying any thing for the last five years. GOLAUB KHAN had, in consequence, been deputed by the Subadar of Choteefgur. teefgur, with about 200 matchlockmen, and 30 horse, to levy the tribute due to the Rajah of Berar; and had been joined by the Rajah of Surgooja, with about 80 horse and foot. Gurrees Sing, on his side, had been supported by the Rajah of Ningwanny Coaty, with 7 matchlocks, and 3 horsemen; and his own forces amounted only to 10 matchlockmen, 3 horsemen, and about 100 of the Chohan mountaineers, armed with hatchets, bows, and arrows. They had attempted to fortify the pass through which they expected the Mahrattas would have entered their territory; but Golaus Khan outgeneralled them, by entering Corair through a different opening in the mountains; in the forcing of which, there had been four or five men killed on both fides. The Mahrattas then entered Cornir, and took possession of Mirzapour, the ancient capital of the country. Upon this the Chohans fled; the Rajah took refuge in his fort; and the mountaineers obliqued themselves, with their families, and as much of their property as they had time to carry off, in the most impenetrable parts of the woods, and in caves among the hills and rocks. The enemy then ravaged the country, and burned the villages, which very much distressed the Rajah's subjects; whereupon they supplicated him to make peace. A treaty was begun, and concluded, on his simpulating to pay the Mahrattas 2000 rupees; and the Mahrattas agreed to return some cattle which they had taken. was well informed that this fum was confidered merely in the light of a nominal tribute, or acknowledgment of lubmission; for the Rajah had it not in his power to pay one rupee; and the Mahrattas had agreed to let him off, on his giving them five finall horses, three bullocks, and a female buffalo. This little recital being ended, I put some questions to the Killadar (who appeared to be by far the most intelligent man among them) relative to the climate and productions of Corair. He related, that they never experience any hot winds; but, from the frequent rains that fall,

the

the air is cool, and throughout the year a covering at night is necessary. He alledged, that he was not a native of Corair, having emigrated from Rewah, in Bogalecund; and that the change of water had difagreed with him, which was usually the case with all new comers. He added, that the country produced a little rice, Indian corn, and a sew other smaller grains peculiar to hilly countries. Being very much gratised with his unreserved replies to my interrogatories, I took this opportunity of presenting the Rajah's son (a lad of ten years of age) with a red turban, which being bound on his head, he so far exceeded in the gaiety of his appearance any of the people about him, that the old Rajah seemed to behold him with delight, and soon after departed, promising to send me two guides before night.

Fig. 26. We departed from Sonehut, when I was much pleafed to find a better road, and more open country, than any I had met with fince our departure from Chunarghur. The villages were, however, still very poor, not confilling of more than four or five huts each. The guides expressed much dread in passing the deferted village of Cutchar, where the tigers had, but a few days before, carried off. some people, which had so alarined the villagers, that they had all fled. On passing the village of Coofahar, I observed a very fine spring, called Darahcoond, from which there issued a confiderable quantity of water. We encamped this day upon a rocky eminence, near the little village of Loverjay; where, as the Mahrattas had now retreated, the inhabitants were builty employed in bringing back their property, and taking possession of their dwellings. The weather was full cloudy, and the air temperate.

There is abundance of game throughout the whole of Corair, confiling of partridges, quails of various kinds, and fnipes; a few wild ducks, and hares in

great numbers; a great variety of deer, among which the Sambre and Neelgaye are found; a kind of red deer; the spotted kind, and hog deer; likewise a species of deer which I had never before met wish, having a long neck, high fore legs, and low behind; but without horns. Some were of a grey colour, and others black and white. Among the animals of a more ferocious nature, may be reckoned the royal tiger, leopards, tiger cats, and large black bears.

FEB. 27th. My journey again continued through the thickest forests. I descended two very difficult passes into a pretty little valley, on the west side of which is fituated the village of Mirzapour, which had formerly been the capital of Corair, and the residence of Adel Shaw, the father of Gurrees Sing. defolate, excepting two or three Chohans, who had come to fee what loss the village had fustained, and how much of their property the Mahrattas might have spared; for we, who had followed them in their retreat, could, from the quantity of dry grain, and other plunder, which they had dropped upon the road, perceive that they had loaded themselves to the utmost. With the exception of a square tank and a mangoe grove at Mirzapour, I could perceive but little difference between it and the other rude and miserable dwellings of the Chohans. I was informed that the motive which had induced the present Rajah to remove his abode from where his ancestors had always resided, was to secure himself from the inroads of the Mahrattas; the fituation of Sonehut, which is nearer to the difficult recesses in the higher parts of Corair, being more favourable for concealment.

Previous to the Mahrattas extending their conquests into these wild regions, the Rajahs of Corair appear to have lived in persect independence; and never having been necessitated to submit to the payment of any tribute,

tribute, they had no occasion to oppress their subjects. As far as my inquiries could penetrate into the history of this country, but which, from there being no records, must be liable to great inaccuracy, it appeared that the *Chohans* were the aborigines of *Corair*; and that a species of government, very like the ancient seudal systems, had somerly subsisted.

Having proceeded about three miles beyond Mirzapour, we came to the village of Sorrah, where we found the villagers taking possession of their habitations; but on seeing us, they all sled; nor would they again return to their huts, until we had passed by. Between Sorrah and Munsook, where we encamped this day, I observed several narrow valleys that were cultivated with rice. The inequality of the ground making it a receptacle for the water that falls, the natives throw little banks across the valley, of strength proportionate to the declivity of the surface, by which contrivance they preserve a sufficient quantity of water for the irrigation of their fields throughout the whole year.

THE village of Munfook being defolate, it was fortunate that we had been so provident as to carry grain. Our guides, who had now accompanied us two days journey, being impatient for their discharge, we were under the necessity of pressing a man who had come into the village to see what remained of his pillaged habitation. He was naked, having nothing about him but his bow and arrows, and appeared at first a good deal terrified; but on being fed, and treated kindly, he foon became pacified. As the evening approached, we heard a hallooing in the woods, and, after liftening with attention, we found it was the mountaineers inquiring for their loft companion, whom they were feeking with much anxiety. We made him answer them, that his person was safe, and that he was well treated; upon which they retired apparently fatisfied.

F 4

FEB. 28th. A heavy fall of rain, accompanied with wind, delayed our moving until noon; when we proceeded, and reached Tuggong, by half past five o'clock. This little hamlet, which confifted only of three huts, was destitute of forage for our cattle; and our provisions being also expended, and the place desolate, we had no resource lest, but to march the next day, until we could reach fome inhabited place, where our very urgent wants could be supplied. Our guides having now accompanied us three days, declared they would proceed no further; and the man we had furprized, proved so wild and untractable, that he was of little or no fervice. But, to add to our trouble, about three in the morning of the enfuing day, a very heavy storm of wind and rain came on, which lasted with little intermission till noon, so that we now became not only hungry, but wet and cold. ther cleared up about noon, when three men came in from Moorylol, the Goand Rajah of Kurgommah; the object of whose visit, I found, was to entreat me not to go near his place of residence. It was with difficulty I could persuade them, that the object of our journey, and the nature of our fituation, was fuch as to preclude a compliance with their message: but which appearing at length to comprehend, they readily undertook to relieve our guides, and conduct

MARCH 1st. We proceeded in the afternoon through a very wet road to Kurgommah. The Goands, seeing us encamp quietly, came out to the number of about sifty to gaze at us. They appeared to be a stout well looking people, and in every respect superior to the mountaineers of Corair. We experienced some dissipulty in conversing with them; but, after repeated applications, we made them at last comprehend, that we were in want of grain; when they informed us, that we could have none till the next day; as it would be necessary for me to halt, and see Mootylot, before any thing could be afforded us.

MARCH

MARCH 2d. RAJAH MOOTYLOL came to visit me: he was a tall, well-made man, of a very dark complexion, but appeared to have been much reduced by fickness. Another fick man was with him, whose complaint seemed to be a leprofy, and who wanted physic, and advice; but which I told him I was unable to give him. On my inquiring of them what countries were fituated contiguous to Kurgommah, I was informed, that to the north was Corair; to the north-west, Ningwanny Coaty, and Bogalecund; to the well, Pindara, and Omercuntuc; to the fouth, Mahtin; and to the cast, Surgooja. These countries are all very wild, and thinly inhabited, and are feldom or never frequented by any travellers, except the Hindoo pilgrims, who go to vifit the fources of the Soane and Nurbudda rivers at Omercuntue. ! he usual road to this place is by Ruttunpour; but the Brahmens having been plundered, by the Pertaubgur Goand Rajah, of what they had collected from the offerings of the pilgrims, it was at that time little frequented. With much difficulty I procured here a feanty supply of grain, for which we paid exorbitantly, and prevailed on Mootylot to give us guides to direct us in our next day's journey.

MARCH 3d. OUR guides, either from knavery or ignorance, led us repeatedly out of the road, which was over very rugged ground, and through a very wild country. We were in confequence frequently puzzled to recover the track, and obliged to grope out our way for the first five miles; after which it was with much satisfaction that we quitted the territory of Mootylol; and, crossing the river Huston, entered upon the Mahrata's Khass Purgunnah of Mahtin. The banks of the river were very rugged and steep; and the impressions of figers seet were visible in the sands. On the opposite bank stood the little village of Mungora, in which we found only one family, consulting of an old man his wise, and two sons;

the latter of whom very readily relieved our guides, and led us through a wilderness to Coofgar, the inhabitants of which were Goands. Excepting in the culture of the foil for subfishence, they appeared to be totally uninformed, and ignorant of every thing relative to other parts of the world. They did not, however, flew any fymptoms of alarm on our approach, as we had commonly experienced among the inhabitants of these wild regions. Neither filver nor copper coins are current in this country; but cowries were passed at a profit of near an hundred per cent. above their common value at Chunarghur. With much difficulty we procured here, from the villages, as much grain as fusficed for the day. The weather proved fqually, but cleared up at night; and a clear fky at our fetting out next morning gave us fresh spirits.

March 4th. A little after funrise the sky was again overcast, and as we proceeded we perceived that much rain had fallen in every direction around us. We escaped, however, with little; and as we approached to Julky, the country appeared less overrun with large forest trees than that we had travelled through the preceding day; but the road led fometimes through almost impervious thickets of high grafs and reeds. On our arrival at Julky, we found a different tribe of mountaineers, who called themselves Cowhiers. Two roads led from this place to Mahtin; one, by Tannaira Cul are and Butles; another, more circuitous, through the beds of the Bockre and Hulloo rivers, Kurby and Bonnair. In the evening I examined the former, and found it tolerably passable as far as Tannaira; from which place it appeared to lead into the hills. This village had been recently deflroyed by fire; and on my inquiring the cause from the villagers at Julky, they informed me, that the tigers had carried off fo many of the inhabitants, and had made fuch devastation among their cattle, that they had been induced to abandon it, and to fettle at

ble

Julky. A herd of the Sambre deer, very wild, had taken up their residence near the remains of the village of Tannaira, where we saw likewise abundance of green pigeons and peacocks.

Finding the road thus far good, I had determined to proceed by this route to Mahtin; but the Cowhiers diffuaded me from it; alledging, at the same time, that if I pleased, I might attempt it, but that they were convinced it would be impassable in the hilly part for cattle of any description; and that the road was of so difficult a nature, that I could not hope to reach Mahtin by night, although the distance was only sisteen miles. To have involved myself in so arduous an attempt, without the prospect of any refreshment, and, after clambering over precipices all day, to have run the risk of being benighted in so wild and desolate a part of the country, would have been highly imprudent; I therefore abandoned the idea, and determined on taking the road by Kurby.

MARCH 5th. About an hour before day-light, our route commenced for about a mile in the bed of the Bockye inver, which led us into the bed of the Huston, where the Bream was confiderable, and very rapid. We crossed it twice; but in this we were not so fortunate as in the somier, where we had sound a hard bottom; for the wetness of the road, and the quick-sands in which our cattle-were frequently involved, rendered this part of our journey very this some and distressing.

WE arrived this day at Pory, having left forme lotty ranges of hills to the well-ward. At this place a Combier chief came to vifit me; or rather his curiofity brought him to fee a white man. He was accompanied by his fon, and grandfon; both flout and large limbed men for mountaineers, though not fo well shaped as the Gognds. We started at each other a little while; for our languages being totally unintelligi-

ble to each other, we could hold no conversation, until a Byraghy Fakeer, who had wandered into these wilds, tendered his services as interpreter. All that I could collect from this chief was, that in these mountains there are seven small districts, called Chowrasfeys, containing nominally eighty-four villages; but that, in reality, not more than fifteen were then in existence; that they were all considered as belonging to the Purgunnah of Mahtin; and that the tribute they paid to the Mahratta Government, which confifted in grain, was very inconfiderable. . The Mahrattas kept it up to retain their authority among the mountaineers; who, if not kept in subjection, were constantly issuing into the plain country to plunder. I inquired of him, if there had ever existed a Cowhier Rajah, or independent chief of any kind; to which he replied, that the country had formerly been fubject to the Rewah Rajah of Bogalecund, and that, about thirty years fince, the Mahrattas had driven him out; having in the contest very much impoverished and depopulated the country.

The conversation was carried on under much disadvantage; for it was evident our interpreter understood but impersectly the language of Cowhier. The old man, whose attention had been chiefly attracted by a Ramnaghur Morah,* of which he was desirous to know the construction, being satisfied as to that point, now took his leave, and departed.

MARCH 6th. This day's journey brought us to Mahtin. The road, for the first five miles, was one continued ascent; in some parts steep; but in others, gradual; till we arrived at the village of Bunnair, where we turned to the westward, to ascend the very difficult gaut between it and Mahtin, which in length is about three miles. At the bottom of it is the little village of Loungah, which gives its name to the pass.

[·] A kind of stool, made of wicker work, and cotton thread-

We had hardly reached the top of the first ascent; when a violent squall of wind and rain, accompanied by thunder and lightning, broke under us. We were fortunate in cscaping it; for had it fallen in our track. it would have rendered the road fo slippery as greatly to increase the difficulty of the ascent. We arrived at Mahtin about an hour before noon, and encamped on the east bank of the river Taty. Near this place (bearing north about one mile distant) is a very picturesque mountain, called, by the Cowhiers, Mahtin Dey. With my telescope I discovered a little slag on the summit of it; and on inquiring the reason, I was informed that it was to denote the residence of the Hindoo Goddess BHAVANI. This day being the Hooly,* the mountaineers were celebrating the festival, by finging, and dancing, in a very rude manner, to the found they produced by beating a kind of drum, madewith a skin stretched over an earthen pot. seemed to be totally uninformed as to the origin on meaning of the festival; nor was there a Brahmen among them, to afford them any information on that subject. I am inclined to think that they are a tribe of low Hindoos; but being fo very illiterate, and speaking a dialect peculiar to themselves, any inquiries into their history, manners, and religion, would have been little fatisfactory.

This evening we had a good deal of thunder, and the fly was overcast and clear, at intervals, until near midnight, when a violent storm of wind and rain came on from the N. W. accompanied with very large hail-stones. The thunder was very loud and shrill, and, being re-echoed by the mountains, the noise was tremendous. The storm continued about two hours, when the wind abated; but the clouds came down upon the hills on all sides, and the rain continued more or less violent all the next day.

MARCH

^{*} An Hindoo festival at the spring.

March 7th. In the evening the clouds began to ascend, and the day broke next morning with a clear sky; but the country being wet, and the Taty river quite silled, we were compelled to postpone our march.

MARCH 8th. This morning a Cowhier came in from Loffah, a village about five cose distant, and reported, that close to Mahtin, at the bottom of the large hills, he saw the mangled bodies of a man and a bullock, who appeared to have been recently killed by tigers. I found, on inquity, that the traveller was a villager coming with his bullock, loaded with grain, to Mahiin, and that the accident happened just as he was terminating his journey. Upon asking the Cowhiers if they used any means to destroy the tigers, they replied, that the wild beafts were so numerous, that they dreaded, if one were to be destroyed, the rest would soon be revenged upon them, and upon their cattle, and would undoubtedly depopulate the country. He added, that the inhabitants of Makein make certain offerings and facilities, at stated periods. to Bhavani, on Mahlin Dey, for her protection from wild beafts, upon which they rely for prefervation; and he remarked to me, that the man who had been killed, was not an inhabitant of their village. I could not forbear a finile at the credulity of these mountaineers.

We had now experienced rain, more or less, for twenty-two days: the weather was still cold, but the air, clear and sharp; and, as far as I could discover, the fall of rain was not considered as unusual at this season in that part of the country.

FROM the time that we had entered Corair, I had observed a great variety of very beautiful flowering shrubs, which appeared new to me; but not possessing sufficient botanical knowledge to decide to what classes

of the vegetable system they belonged, I endeavoured to collect the seeds of each kind; in the hope that, if the change of soil and climate should not prove unfavourable, I might enjoy the satisfaction of seeing them flourish in some part of the Company's territories.

MARCH 9th. PROCEEDED to Jattaingah, a short distance; but the rain had made the road so bad that we travelled but slowly.

MARCH 10th. The weather fair. Proceeded fourteen miles to Pory, a Byraghy's dwelling. We had now some respite from the difficult ascents and defcents we had been accustomed to, our road lying in a valley between two high ridges of mountains. At this place I was informed that me fources of the Soane and Nurbuddah rivers were not more than twenty-two cc/es distant to the westward; that they derive their origin from the water that is condensed, and issues from the cavities, in the mountains which form the high table land of Omercuntuc. Prior to my commencing this journey, I had pictured to myfelf a great deal of fatisfaction, in the prospect of visiting this place, and in viewing the spot where two large rivers, issuing from the same source, pursue their courses in opposite directions, until the one falling into the gulph of Cambay, and the other into the Ganges, they may be faid to insulate by far the largest part of Hindooftan.

THE Byraghy at Pory, who had been somewhat alarmed on our approach, seeing us encamp without molesting him, brought me a present of a sowl and two eggs, which I accepted; but being satigued at the time, I dismissed him, desiring him to call again in the evening. He came according to appointment, accompanied by two or three Cowhiers; and as he had been a great traveller, I found him very conversant

in the Hindoostanny language. I had observed his dwelling to be in a ruinous condition; and on asking him the cause of it, he informed me, that about two months before, the Goands had come in the night, had carried off all his property, and, after killing as many of the inhabitants as came in their way, had fet fire to the village; fince which the inhabitants had only been able to bind a few reeds and straw together, to shelter themselves from the weather. Upon asking him the cause of these depredations, he informed me, that ever fince the Mahrattas had attempted to subdue the Pertabgur Goands, who inhabit the hills to the westward of Ruttunpour, there had been a continual warfare between them. He added, that the Goands were frequently moving about in large bodies, and never failed to commit depredations, and to plunder when opportunities offered; and he concluded by advifing me to proceed on my journey with caution. I inquired of him if it was practicable to proceed by any route from Pory to Omercuntuc; to which he replied in the negative; and expressed much surprize at my wishing to go into a country, which, he said, was the abode only of wild beafts, demons, and the favage Goands.

MARCH 11th. I proceeded about thirteen miles to the little village of Neaparrah, confishing only of three miserable huts. It is under the Purgunnah of Cheyima, which is considered a part of Choteesgur. This day one of my camels died with symptoms of the hydrophobia; having, for some days, been so restless and unruly, that he was continually throwing off his load. I could not easily account for this circumstance, until I recollected that the night before I lest Rajegaut, near Benares, a dog had run into our camp, and bit the animal in the face, as also a Taiteo in the leg, which had afterwards died in a very unaccountable manner at Kurgommah.

MARCH 12th. We proceeded to Maudun, our road still continuing in a narrow valley between high ranges of mountains. On our march this day, I had observed a few spots cleared on the tops and declivities of the mountains; and I could discern here and there, with my telescope, a hut, and some people quite naked. We likewise met with numerous herds of wild buffaloes.

MARCH 13th. We arrived at Ruttunpour, after quitting the mountainous country. This being the capital of Choteefghur, and the residence of the Subadar, I expected to have found a large town; but, to my great disappointment, I beheld a large straggling village, consisting of about a thousand huts, a great many of which were desolate; and even ITTUL PUNDIT the Subadar's house, which was tiled, and situated in the Bazar, or market-place, appeared but a poor habitation.

I HAD been furnished with a letter from the Bergr government, to this chief, which I immediately fent him, along with a copy of my pass. About noon he fent his brother to congratulate me on my arrival, who, after our mutual falutations were over, inquired by what route I had come to Ruttunpour. On my telling him through Corair, he expressed much surprize at our having travelled through fuch dreary wilds and mountainous paths; and told me, that the Mahratta troops always experienced the greatest inconvenience, when fent into that country, from the want of provisions, and always suffered much from the badness of the water. I had obtened, indeed, the nux vomica hanging over the rivers and rivulers, which had led me to suspect, that the insusion of it might produce an irritation in the flomach and bowels; but the streams were pure and limpid, and the water not disagreeable to the talle. On my asking him what he conceived to be the cause of the deleterious effects of the water on their people, he faid, that the v attributed Vol. VII.

attributed them to its extreme chill; but this was a quality which I had not been able to discover. He next inquired by what route it was my intention to proceed to Vizagapatam. When I mentioned through Choicefgur, and Buftar, to Jaypour, he informed me, that I had yet a very mountainous and wild country to penetrate by that road; added to which, the inhabitants being Goands, and very favage, I might experience some trouble from them. I asked him il the Mahratta government was not efficient there; to which he replied, that for the last four or five years, the Rojah had paid no tribute; that they had never had the entire possession of the country; but, by continuing to pillage and harafs the Goands, they had brought the Rajah to acknowledge the Mahratta government, and to promise the payment of an annual tribute: that a few days before, a vakeel * had arrived from Buftar with 5000 rupees, which at least shewed an inclination to be on good terms. He told me, that I should be provided with a letter from the Ranny, or widow, of the late BEMBAJEE, to the Conkair Rajah, whose adopted son he was. I was further informed, that this Conkair Rajah was a Goand chief, possessing a track of hilly country that bounds the fouthern parts of Choicefgur, and is situated between it and the Bustar Rajah's country, who, from his fituation, would have it in his power to affift me in the further profecution of my route through Bullar to Vizianagram, where my journey was to terminate.

I HAD now travelled 296 miles, from Chunar to Ruttunpour, in forty-four days; a small distance, comparatively with the length of time; but the difficulty of the roads, and the inclemency of the weather, had, for the last twenty days; not only retarded us exceedingly, but our cattle likewise had suffered so much,

^{*} Ambassador, or deputy.

much, and were so exhausted, that a little respite from further satigue was become necessary for our welfare.

A VARIETY of interesting objects now presented themselves, on which I was desirous of acquiring information; the first and most important of which was, an accurate account of the fources of the Nurbuddah and Soane rivers, and of the Hindoo pilgrimage to them. ITTUL PUNDIT visited me in the evening, when I expressed to him the strong desire I felt of proceeding to the spot, and inquired as to the nature of the road by which travellers usually went from Ruttunpour to Omercuntuc. He gave me nearly the fame account which I had previously received from one of my Hircarrahs, who had visited the place, adding, that the Goands were, at this juncture, more powerful than ever, and that no pilgrims had attempted to go there for some time. He expressed at the same time a great deal of astonishment, and some alarm, at what could be my motive for wandering in these uncomfortable mountains and wilds. I told him, that the report I had heard of a very large Hindoo temple, and many curious images, had excited in me a defire to visit them, for magnificent objects in general had that effect upon mankind. To this he seemed to assent; but observed, that it would be impracticable; for, if I were to leave my cattle and baggage under his care. and to proceed with my people on foot, which was the only probable method of furmounting the wild and rugged roads to Omercuntuc, the Purtaubgur Goand Rajah would, notwithstanding, molest me; and would endeavour to shut me up in some of the gauts, or passes, from which we should not be able to extricate ourselves without considerable loss, or the danger of starving in them. Finding, therefore, that no affistance was to be got from the Mahratta, or that · his alarm might induce him rather to throw obstacles in my way, I relinquished, with much mortifying reflection and disappointment, the prospect of visiting C 2 a place

a place, which I confidered as one of the greatest natural curiosities in Hindooftan.

THE only expedient that was now left, was to colleft as accurate an account of the place as possible. In this the Subadar readily affished me, and sent me two Pundits, who had been there repeatedly, and whom he described as intelligent men, and capable of fatisfying my most fanguine expectations. They were both Brahmens, of high cast, and learned men. began to interrogate them concerning the roads from Ruttunpour to Omercuntuc. They faid there was but one, which led from the north fide of the town into the hills, where it continually ascends and descends over mountains, and leads through deep defiles, on the sides of precipices, and through a forest almost impenetrable, to Pindara, (a distance of about twelve coss,) which is the head of a Purgunnah bearing the fame name; but the village is very poor, confifting only of a few Goand huts. From this place the road was only known to the mountaineers, who are always taken as guides to direct the pilgrims in ascending the table land of Omercuntuc. The Soane rifes on the east side of it, and slows first through Pindara, where being joined by numerous other streams from the N. E. side of this mountainous land, it proceeds in a northerly direction through Sohaujepour, and Bogalecund; whence turning to the eastward, it pursues its course to the Ganges. After ascending the table land, the temple is found fituated nearly in the centre of it; where the Nurballa rifes from a small pucka Coond, (or well,) from which, they told me, a stream perpetually flows, and glides along the furface of the high land, until reaching the west end of it, it precipitates itlelf into Mundilla. They described the fall as immense, and said, that at the foot of the table land, its bed becomes a confiderable expanse, where being immediately joined by feveral other streams, it assumes the form of a large river.

I was much gratified with this description, which they delivered with fo little hefitation, and which agreed so well with the accounts I had previously redeived, that it left no doubt in my mind as to its veracity. I next inquired of them, in whose territory Omercuntuc was considered. They said, that the Nag-I next inquired of them, in whose territory pour government attached a part of it to their Purgunnah of Pindara: a second part was claimed by the Rojah of Sohaujepour; and a third by the Goands, in whose possession, indeed, the whole at that time rested. They described the building as being about forty feet high; that the images were numerous, and that they were descriptive of a very romantic sable; and this subject immediately led me into that of the pilgrimage. A defire, it feems, to posless the property accruing from the offerings, and taxation levied on the pilgrims who travel thither, had raifed three competitors for it; but it properly belonged to the Brahmens who attend on the pagoda,

THE Hindoos worship at the source of these rivers the confort of Siva, whom SIR WILLIAM JONES, in his Treatife on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India, mentions as being diftinguished by the names of PAR-VATI, or the mountain-born goddess; DURGA, or difficult of access; and Biravani, or the goddess of fecundity; which latter is her leading name at Omercuntuc. The temple which contains the Moorat, or image of BHAYANI, was built by one of the ancient Rajahs of Ruttunpour. The Pundits faid there were formerly records of fifty-two fuccessions; but that, about fixty years ago, the family had become extinct; when the Mahranas took advantage of the confusion that enfued, from the endeavours of many competitors, to feize upon the government, and have retained it ever fince that period. They related to me the names of three preceding Ra, ahs; viz. of Heonobus Sing; his father, HEONNURAIS; grandfather, BISNAUT SING; and great-grandfather, RUTTUN SING. More their G_3 memory,

memory, or papers, could not furnish; but that the whole might be attained by reference to records which were now difficult to be found. Upon my expressing much folicitude to possess them, they told me that they doubted if there were any in Ruttunpour; for that the oppression and calamity which had befallen the city, fince the Mahrattas had got possession of it, had destroyed that encouragement which the Brahmens, under the government of their ancient Rajahs, had been accustomed to receive; and having deprived them of small grants of land, upon which they had formerly fublished, they had not only disturbed their literary pursuits, but had distressed them to such a degree, that they had been compelled to wander in search of the means of subsistence, and of peaceable retirement, elsewhere; and it might naturally be supposed, that they had taken their books and papers with them. There were at this time, they faid, only two or three families remaining, in the service of the Mahratta government, upon stipends so slender, that they werebarely enabled to sublist.

THE fpring from which the Nurbudda takes its fource, is said to be enclosed by a circular wall, which was built by a man of the name of Rewall, and on that account the river is called Maht Rewah, from its fource all through Mundilla, until it reaches the confines of Bhopaul. The images at Omercuntuc are said to represent Bhavani, (who is there worshipped under the symbol of NARMADA, or the Narbudda river,) much enraged at her flave Johilla, and a great variety of attendants preparing a nuptial banquet; to which a very romantic fable is attached: That Soane, a demi-god, being much enamoured with the extreme beauty of NARMADA, after a very tedious courtship, prefumed to approach the Goddess, in hopes of accomplishing the object of his wishes by espousing her. NARMADA sent her slave Johilla to observe in what state he was coming; and, if arrayed in jewels,

οf

of lovely form and dignity, or worthy to become her confort, to conduct him to Omercuntuc. Johilla departed, met with Soane, and was so dazzled with the splender of his ornaments, and extreme beauty, that she sell passionately in love with him; and so far forgot her duty as to attempt to personate her mistress; in which succeeding, Bhavani (or Narmada) was so enraged at the deceit, that, upon their arrival at Omercuntuc, she severely chastised Johilla, and dissigned her sace in the manner said to be represented in the image. She then precipitated Soane from the top of the table land to the hottom, whence that river rises; disappeared herself in the very spot where the Narbudda issues; and from the tears of Johilla, a little liver of that name springs at the foot of Omercuntuc.

The Pundits terminated their account by prefenting me with an address of Bras Munito the Narbudda, extracted from the Vayer Purana; and which my friend Mr. Samuel Davis translated for me in the following words: "BEAS MUNI thus addiessed NURMADA, (or the Narbudda river:) Glorious as the fun and moon are thine eyes; but the eye in thy forchead blazes like fire: bearing in thy hand a spear like the Treful, and refting on the breast of Buyron. The blood of ANDUK (OSSURA) is dried up in thy prefence; thy Weufon (a fort of fnow) is the dispeller of dread from the human race. BRAMA and SEVA refound thy praifes: Mortals adore thee. The Munis reverence thee; Dewas (demi-gods) and Hindras (angels) are thy progeny. Thou art united with the ocean; thou art descended from Surva. By thee are mortals sanctified. Thou dispeller of want, thou encreaseth the prosperity of those who perform devotions to thee. By thee are mortals directed to the blisful regions, and taught to avoid the manfions of punishment. Thou art also REBA, a child of HEMALA, (the fnowy mountain.) NURMADA answered, O MUNI! thy G 4 words words are perfect, and thy heart is pure: Be thou chief of Munis. By reading this, a man's life will be lengthened, his happiness and fame encreased, and his progeny multiplied."

March 16th. This morning I made an excursion to see the tank and buildings on the west side of Ruttunpour. The first objects that attracted my attention were two Hindoo temples on a hill: one had been erected by Beembajee in honour of Letchmun Ram; and the other I found had been built in honour of BEEMAJEE, whose heroic exploits had raised him in the opinion of the Mahrattas to the honour of a Dewtah; at whose shrine, offerings, and sacrifices, are accordingly made at flated periods. The guide then led me over fome high banks, round the east and north fides of the fort. From the latter a gate projects into a tank upon a high mound. These two faces are furrounded by two large tanks; but the rampart is entirely fallen down, and in the place where it formerly stood, had been erected fome poor huts. In the north end of the fort is fituated a finall brick Hindooftannee house, in which ANUNDYBYE, and another Ranny of the late BEEMBAJEE, refided. He left three wives at his death; one of whom only had burned herfelf with his remains; and the other two were then supported on a Jagheer, granted to them by the Berar Rajah.

I PROCEEDED in a fouth-west direction, until I came to a building sacred to BHYROE; and sound in it an enormous idol, made of blue granite, about nine seet in height, and which was rubbed over with red paint, and adorned with slowers. I was next directed to a little hill, called Letchmy Tackry, upon which is an image and temple dedicated to BHAVANI; whose protection, they said, had ever prevented the Mussulmen from disturbing the Hindoos in their religious rites at Rustunpour. From this hill, looking north, I had

I had a fine prospect of the town and fort of Ruttunpour, surrounded by a great number of tanks and
pools. Beyond them appeared the mountain of
Loffagur, on which the Mahrattas formerly had a
post; and the view was terminated by the blue mountains towards Omercuntuc. To the southward was a
large lake, called Doolapour Talaow, the embankment
of which was nearly two miles in length; and to the
westward, about a mile distant, was a little white
building, which they told me was the tomb of Moosakkan, a Patan mendicant, who had been killed by
the Goands, many years ago, while endeavouring to
make converts to the Mahommedan faith.

I now descended from the hill, and went to look at a heap of ruins; among which they pointed out to me Rajah Rogonaur's old Mahal, or house, under Goofapahar. It had been pulled to pieces for the fake of the materials; and the walls had been much mutilated, in hopes of finding treasure. This building had been constructed on the old site of Ruttunpour, which then bore the name of Rajepour. On my return, I ob. ferved a building in the middle of a tank, erected on thirty-fix arches of the gothic kind, upon which were raised twenty-four pyramids over the external piers: and within them appeared a temple of a pyramidical form, the entire height of which I computed to be about fifty feet. They informed me it was a monument erected to the memory of one of the ancient Rajaks of Ruttunpour; and this object having raised my curiofity, I felt a strong desire to cross the water for a nearer inspection of it; for, if there had been any infeription upon it, it might probably have thrown some light upon the history of this part of I found, however, that the little excursion I had already made, had begun to excite some surprise in the town, which any further delay might have increased almost to an alarm; and as I depended a good deal upon the aihilance of the Subadar of Choteefgur in profecuting the remainder of my route, I conceived it more advisable to abandon the building, and return to my camp, than to hazard any obstruction to my fulfilling with success the very arduous undertaking I was engaged in.

THE Pundits visited me again about noon, when a conversation took place concerning the buildings, and ruins, I had visited in the early part of the day; which commenced with an account of feven Coonds, (wells,) over which, they faid, as many Dewas prefide. Bathing in them they confidered as highly beneficial, for thereby they imagine they receive an ablution from fin. These wells are situated in and about Rultunpour; and from the fanctity attributed to them, the place has been called a Cossy. They related to me a number of fables concerning demons, and giants, who formerly inhabited these hills; one of whom, in particular, they mentioned by the name of GOPAUL Row Palwan, a great wrestler, who lived in the reign of the Emperor ACBAR, and whose name is still 'attached to a part of the hills on the north fide of Ruttunpour. They told me many extraordinary stories of his exploits, and feats of strength and agility; and added, that the Emperor ACBAR, hearing of his fame, had fent for him to court, and that his Majesty had been vastly gratified by his wonderful performances.

THE Pundits being about to take their leave, and as my departure next morning would probably prevent our meeting again, I thought the liberal and ready information they had given me, demanded fome return; and, after making them a fuitable compenfation, I expressed a wish, that if they knew of any inferiptions, or ancient legends, in or about Ruttunpour, they would favour me with copies of them. They departed, promising to comply with my wishes, so far as might lie in their power; and in the evening they

the Deonagur character, but which proved to be nothing more than a transcript from the Mahabarat.

RUTTUNPOUR is undoubtedly a place of great antiquity; and, could I have remained there a sufficient time to examine its ruins, and to search for the ancient records of the place, it is probable I should have obtained some useful information concerning it.

MARCH 18th. HAVING now rested five days at Ruttunpour, our journey was renewed, with fresh spirits, through a champaign country, abundantly watered with little rivers, full of villages, and beautifully ornamented with groves and tanks. After the difficulties we had encountered, the change of scene was truly gratifying; and the Mahratta government being well established, and the country highly cultivated, we met with civil treatment, and abundance of every species of grain. These were comforts to which we had been so long unaccustomed, that the hardships we had fuffered in traverfing the mountains and wilds of Corzir, Kurgummah, and Mahtin, were foon forgot. But as an account of each day's journey. through this fertile country, would be tedious and uninteresting in the detail, I need only mention, that we travelled 100 miles through it in little more than thirteen days, which brought us on the 31st of March to Ryepour, the next principal town in Choteefgur; but which, from its population, and commerce, inight justly be ranked the first... I computed about 3000 huts in it: there is also a large stone fort on the N. E. fide of the town, the walls of which are decayed, but the ditch is deep and wide.

THE foil in this country is a rich black mould, but no where more than three feet in depth. Under this the folid rock appears, as was perceptible in all the beds of the rivers, and in the fides of tanks and wells. It produces large quantities of wheat, and vegetable oil; such as the linseed, and Palmachristi, and various kinds of pulse. Rice is not abundant, it being only cultivated behind large reservoirs of water, collected in the rainy season, in situations where the declivity of the surface is suitable; and through the dykes, or embankments of which, the water is occasionally let out to supply the vegetation, when the fall of rain from the atmosphere no longer savors it.

LARGE quantities of grain are exported from Choteefgur all over the Nizam's dominions, and even to the Circars, when the scarcity in those provinces requires it. From the latter they import salt, which is retailed at such an extravagant price, that it is sometimes sold for its weight in silver. The villages are very numerous, but poor; and the country abounds in cattle, and brood mares of the tattoo species. The population of Choteefgur is not great, nor does the system of government to which it is subject at all tend to increase it.

THE Subah of Choteefgur, with its dependencies, was at this time rented by the Berar government, to ITTUL PUNDIT, for a specific sum, which was payable annually in Nagpour; and who, in consideration of the rank of Subadar, and his appointment, had likewise paid a considerable sum. Upon surther inquiry as to the means by which the Subadar managed the country, I was informed, that he farmed different portions of it to his tenants, for a certain period, and for specific sums, nearly upon the same terms as the whole was remed to him. The revenue is collected by his tenantry, which, in those parts of the country where the government is well established, gives them little trouble. The attention of the Subadar is chiefly directed to levying tributes from the Zemeendars in the mountainous parts of the country, who being al-

ways refractory, and never paying any thing until much time has been spent in warfare, the result is often precarious, and the tribute consequently trivial. I was next led to inquire what method was adopted by the tenantry in collecting the revenue from the pea-They informed me that it invariably confifted in taxing the ploughs, and was always delivered in the produce of the lands; as grain, oil, or cotton, according to the species of cultivation for which the implements had been used. This consequently occasions a vast accumulation of the produce of the country to the tenant; and some expedient becomes immediately necessary to convert it into specie, to enable him to pay his rent.

THE insecurity attending the traveller, in his property and person, throughout most of the native governments of India, and the privilege allowed to the Zemeendars, of taxing the merchants who pass through their districts, is so discouraging to foreign traders, that they are rarely feen, in the Mahratta territory, employed in any other line of traffic, than that of bringing for sale a few horses, elephants, camels, and shawls. All other branches of trade, both in exports and imports, are under the immediate management of subjects to the empire; under whose protection, likewise, a numerous class of people, called Brinjaries, carry on a continual traffic in grain, and every other necessary of life. By these, the largest armies are frequently supplied. But, although much inland commerce is carried on in this way, it derives very little encouragement from any regulations of the Mahratta government, as to the improvement of roads, or any thing to animate it; and it is chiefly upheld by the necessity they are under of converting the produce of the lands into specie; the Brinjaries purchasing the grain at a moderate rate from the Zemeendars, and retailing it again in those parts of the country, where the poverty of the foil, or a temporary scarcity, may offer a ready market. Accordingly, we find the Brinjary Brinjary persevering through roads which nothing but the most indefatigable spirit of industry could in-square him to attempt, and where the straightness of the paths and desiles, barely affords a passage for himself and his bullocks.

THE Mahrattas keep their pealantry in the most abject state of dependance, by which means, they alledge, the Ryats are less liable to be turbulent, or offensive to the government. Coin is but sparingly circulated among them; and they derive their habitations, and subsistence, from the labour of their own hands. Their troops, who are chiefly composed of emigrants from the northern and western parts of Hindoostan, are quartered upon the tenantry, who, in return for the accommodation and subfishence they afford them, require their affistance, whenever it may be necessary, for collecting the revenues. Such was the state of the country and government of Choteefgur; the exports of which, in seasons of plenty, are said to employ 100,000 bullocks; and it is accordingly one of the most productive provinces under the Berar Rajah.

The only road from Cuttack to Nagpour passes through Ryepour: it is, indeed, the only track by which a communication is kept open between those two places; but it is frequently obstructed by the Zemeendars who possess the intervening space of hilly country.

April 4th. A journey of seven days, during which the weather proved very pleasant, terminated this day on the southern confines of Choteesgur. We were here within view of the hills that extend from near the sea-coast of the Northern Circars to this part of the peninsula; a space of about three degrees in latitude. Our march through this fine champaign country had recruited the strength of our cattle; and I found my party yet able to endure much fatigue, and hard service, should it be required. I

had been abundantly regaled with fine water fowls, arge flocks of ortolans and quails; and the large herds of cattle having furnished us with milk, and gnee, in great abundance, which we obtained for the most inconsiderable prices, our departure from this charming country was regretted by the whole party; and the recollection of the hardships we had already suffered in a hilly country, rendered the prospect before us rather unwelcome.

It was here that I first met the Mahanuddee, or Cuttack river, and crossed it to enter upon the thick woods of Conkair, where the road immediately dwindled into a narrow path, or defile, through thick bushes and forest trees. After crossing a low ridge of hills, we entered upon that tract of country which is possessed by the ancient Rajahs of Goandwannah, and is entirely inhabited by the Goand mountaineers. The village at which our march terminated this day, consisted only of five poor huts; and the Goands, amounting to about fifteen inhabitants, came out to gaze at us. They were totally divested of alarm; and gave us to understand, through the medium of a Jassos Hirkarrah, that, but for the instructions they had received from their chief, they would not have allowed us to enter upon their territory.

APRIL 5th. This day a very ferious misfortune befel me, in the loss of the only Hirkarrah who had ever before been in these wild and unfrequented tracts. He was the same whom I have already mentioned as having yisted the sources of the Narbudda and Soane rivers, at which time he was in the service of the Mahrattas. He had, three days before, been indisposed with a complaint in his bowels, probably owing to the change of water, which had induced me to dispense with his attendance, in order that he might travel at his leisure, in company with another sick man, who

who usually came to the ground about an hour after the rest of the people. This day, however, they were both missing; and on my inquiring into the cause, the Mahratta Hirkarrah, whom ITTUL PUNDIT had deputed with me from Ruttunpour, replied, by conjecturing, that they had been robbed and murdered on the road by the Goands. For, said he, where are they to sind resuge in this wild and inhospitable country?

Intelligence of my approach having been sent by the Mahratta Aumil, on the frontier of Choteesgur, to the Conkair Rajah, this evening a Vakeel came from him, to congratulate me on my arrival in his territory, and to conduct me to his residence. I was much pleased at the courtesy of the Goand chies; for the specimen I had seen of his subjects, shewed that they were in general very savage, and by no means wanting in spirit; and I soon found, that nothing but conciliating their good opinion, would enable me to travel among them with any probability of success. We were, however, abundantly supplied with grain in our progress through his country.

April 6th. We arrived at the town of Conkair, which is fituated between a high rocky hill and the fouth bank of the Mahanuddee river. On the fummit of the hill the Rajah had built a fortress, and mounted two guns. We encamped in a mango grove on the north fide of the river, where, after taking a little refreshment, I dispatched to the Rajah the letter which had been procured for me by ITTUL PUNDIT from the Ranny of Bembajee. An answer was returned in about two hours, stating, that the Rajah would visit me the ensuing morning; when I should be informed of every particular concerning my route to the country of the late Viziaram Rauze; and in the mean time he sent me a present of five sowls, some eggs, and a small pig.

My Hirkarrahs soon got intelligence that the Rajihs of Conkair and Bustar were at variance; and
that the former had laid waste, and taken possession of,
the N. E. frontier of the Bustar Rajah's country; where
they informed me, the Mahanuddee rises at a place
called Schowah, about seven coss to the south of Conkair. This place is entirely surrounded by hills; but
the ranges extending from the north round to the
cast and south, appeared very losty and extensive.
The Bustar frontier is only six coss distant to the
fouthward, and is entered upon through Tilly Gautty,
a very rugged and steep pass over the hills.

APRIL 7th. This morning, about eight o'clock, was announced to me the approach of SAUM SING, the Rajah of Conkair; of whose intended visit having received previous notice, I had prepared every thing for his reception accordingly. After the falutation was over, I began an inquiry into the nature of the country through which my journey was to be purfued to the Northern Circars. The Rajah replied personally to a variety of questions, and I was surprized to find him speak the Hindoostanny language with great fluency. He gave me very explicit information, that my nearest route would be by Dongah to Jugdulpour, the principal town of Buftar; from thence to Cotepar, which is the boundary between Bustar and Jaepour; and thence to Jaepour through Koorkooty gaut, to the country of VIZIARAM RAUZE. He faid that this road to the sea-coast was frequented only by the Brinjaries: but even they had lately abandoned it, in consequence of the refractory conduct of the Bustar Rajah; for the neighbouring Goand Zemeendars, infligated by the Mahrattas, had plundered and destroyed all the villages to a confiderable distance upon it. He then informed me of another route, taking a circuit to the eastward, by Schowah, (the source of the Mahanuddee,) through Ryegur to Jaepour, which the Brinjaries at that time frequented, and by which the Vol. VII:

the Bustar Rajah's territory would be avoided. Both roads met at Jaepour, the capital of the country bearing the same name, which town is said to consist of about five hundred Oorea huts. The old town of Bustar, I was informed, had been deserted, the inhabitants having removed to Jugdulpour; under which a considerable river runs, called the Inderowty; the bed of which, at that place, is very rocky, and not fordable at any period of the year. A small fort is situated in a peninsula formed by the winding of the river; and a deep ditch having been dug across the narrow neck of land, it is considered a strong situation; but, in the rainy season, the river overslows its banks, and forms a very extensive lake on all sides.

The road by Schowah and Ryegur appearing the only practicable one, I had refolved, after taking an adequate supply of provisions from Conkair, to commence upon it: but, on communicating my intention to SAUM SING, he endeavoured to dissuade me from it; alledging, in the first place, that if I reached the Faepour gaut, I should find it shut up, and occupied by a large body of troops belonging to the fon of the late VIZIARAM RAUZE, who would certainly oppose me; and that my party was not only too weak to force a passage, but even to preserve ourselves from being plundered, and cut off. Upon asking the reason of his being there in a hostile manner, he told me, that VIZIARAM RAUZE's country had been taken from him by the Fringhys; that the Rajah, with a great many of his people, had died in defence of it, (alluding to the action near Padnaburam, in 1794,) and that he did not doubt, but NARRAIN BAUPPOO, his fon, and the remainder of his adherents, would be glad of an opportunity of retaliating upon me and my party. It appeared, indeed, that Rajah RAMLOCHUN, of Jac-pour, had, subsequent to the death of VIZIARAM RAUZE,

RAUZE, afforded protection to his fon; having rereived him, and his adherents, with much cordialism: and had united them with his own forces, to enable him to resist the English, and evade paving the tribute which had formerly been paid to VIZIARAM RAUZE. SAUM SING added, that, as I should have to pass through the centre of the Jacpour country, if I escaped from one attempt that would be made to plunder me, I could nevertheless not hope to penetrate through it; for Rajah RAMLOCHUN could at any time muster 5000 men, the greater part of whom carried matchlocks; and others were provided with large crooked knives, and long spears; whose custom is to creep on the ground under cover of the bushes, until with reach of their enemy, when they throw their fpears with great dexterity and effect. He next represented to me that the Bustar Rajah, Dorryan Deo, and his son, PEERKISSEN DEO, were very treacherous and powerful, having possession of a great extent of country, divided into forty-eight Purgunnahs: That DORRYAR DEO, at the time of the decease of his father, had three brothers, on two of whom he had seized, and having put out their eyes, he still kept them in confinement; but the third had made his efcape to Nagpour. Many acts of the most horrid treachery, which he had been guilty of towards his own people, were then detailed to me; and his only remaining relative, who had been subservient to his views, having lately been plundered by him, had fled, to avoid more dreadful consequences. That Don-RYAR DEO had removed his residence from Jugdulpour, to a neighbouring hill-fort, about five coss distant, called Kaisloor, on which he had secured himself against the Mahrattas, and paid them no more tribute than he felt himself inclined to; on which account they plundered his country, and encouraged all the Zemeendars in the neighbourhood of Bustar to do the fame, and to wrest from him as much of his territory as they could. SAUM SING next stated to me, that, under such circumstances, I could not expect that Dorryan H 2 DEO

Deo would pay much attention to my Mahratta Purwannah; and he was convinced, that if he did not attack me openly, he would do it underhand, by means of the Jaepour Rajah. He concluded by telling me, that he had been induced to give me this information, to diffuade me from proceeding to VIZIA-NAGRUM, by Bustar and Jaepour, to the end that no reproach might come upon him; for in case any misfortune should befal me, the Mahrattas would undoubtedly tax him with duplicity, in not having given me information of the danger before me; and that as I was recommended to his care by his adopted mother, the Ranny of the late Bembajee, he felt himself doubly inclined to prevent any harm happening to me; but, if I was determined upon taking that route, I must take the consequences upon myself; for, after the representation he had made of the difficulty and danger of attempting it, he should consider himself as rid of all responsibility, and would make the same known to the Mahratta government.

The information of the Goand chief was delivered with fo much candour, and so very explicitly, that I could not harbour a doubt as to its veracity; and I found it afterwards fully verified on my arrival in the Circars.

I was next led to inquire, that, supposing the country was settled, and the Bustar and Jaepour Rajahs not unsriendly to travellers, if the track through it would be of a convenient nature for loaded cattle. Saum Sing replied, that the road through these countries consisted of one continual ascent and descent, through the thickest forests and mountainous paths, and in some places over the sides of the most craggy precipices; that the whole of the Bustar country was almost a wilderness, being, in a sew places only, thinly inhabited by the wild Goands, who are in a state of nature; and that in some parts I should find

no water, but at a very long distances; and, in reality, o supplies of grain, until I should arrive upon the fiontier of Viziaram Rauze's country.

Such unfavourable reports of the state of the countries before me, damped at once the hopes I had entertained of fulfilling, with entire fuccess, the object of my deputation; and I experienced the most vexatious disappointment at such a check being thrown in the way of my progress. I was, indeed, at a loss which way to direct my course through this labyrinth of mountains and wilderness; but, upon asking SAUM Sing which would be the most eligible road to the sea-coast, he replied, without hesitation, that the only practicable road would be from Conkair through the hills and jungles to Byragur, a distance of about forty cofs to the westward, where I should fall in with a high road leading to the Deccan, through the middle of Chanda, a fine champaign country. As my original intention of proceeding in a foutherly direction had been frustrated, and the track pointed out to me through Chanda, would still furnish many desirable acquifitions in geographical knowledge, I resolved to adopt it; or rather I knew of no other to pursue.

THE Rajah, who was now about to take his leave, perceiving a fheet of white paper upon the table. which attracted his currofity, it was handed to him, when he admired it exceedingly, and made a request that, if I had any to spare, I would give him some, which I promised accordingly; and here our conference ended.

WHEN Rajah SAUM SING, with his retinue, had departed, I sent an intelligent man to him, to take an account of all the roads leading from this place to the fea-coast, and particularly of that which he had advised me to pursue. As the Mahratta Hirkarrah who

 H_3

had accompanied me from Ruttunpour, was here to leave me, it became necessary that we should have some other man who could interpret between us and the Goands who were to be our guides. I sent therefore a request to the Rajah, soliciting that such a person might accompany us to his frontier; and likewise, that he would give me letters recommending me to the attention of the other Goand Zemeendars between Conkair and Byragur. As an inducement to him to comply, I took this opportunity of sending him, according to my promise, a quire of gilt writing paper, and some coloured China paper. In the evening my messenger returned with an account, that the Rajah had been delighted with the little present I had made him, and had in a very satisfactory manner complied with my request.

About seven o'clock in the evening, the Rajah's Dewan, who I understood was the only man in the town that could read or write, same and presented me with a small piece of paper, addressed to the Goand chief whose territory is situated between Conkair and Byragur. It was written in the Mahratta character; and, on procuring a translation, I found it was addressed to the Rajah of Pannawar, and contained merely information of who I was, and where I was going, in owner that he might not be alarmed at my approach, nor impede me in my progress through his country. The Dewan then delivered us some Goands, as guides, and departed.

April 8th. This morning we experienced much trouble in detaining any of our guides; some of whom had, after repeated struggles, broke loose, and ran off. Our route led through thick forests and desiles among the hills, which continued during this and the ensuing day, until we reached Bouslagur, a large Goand village, situated at the soot of a high hill. It was here I first observed the streams running to the westward, and that

the

the country is drained into the Godavery; having hitherto perceived the little rivers and nullahs running eastward, and falling into the Mahanuddee. From Conkair to this place (a distance of about forty miles) not a single habitation had occurred, which could with propriety be-denominated a hamlet. I had, indeed, observed a hut or two, here and there, with small spots of land somewhat cleared, where the Goands had cut down the trees to within three seet of the ground, and having interwoven the branches so as to sence their plantations against the attacks of wild beasts, had removed the intervening grass and creepers, to make room for the cultivation of a little maize, or Indian corn.

APRIL 10th. This morning, as the party was moving off, the Goands, who had been brought out of the village by the Rajah's people to serve as guides, were no sooner delivered to us, than they began to: make very desperate attempts to get away, in most of which they succeeded. The Rajah's men alledged. that it was from fear; but to me it appeared to proceeded from knavery, and an inclination to quarrel: for, when we had moved on a little way, a large body of Goands, armed with spears, surrounded a loaded bullock that was coming off the ground a little later than the rest; and, if I had not sent back a party to the affistance of the people in charge of it, there appeared to be little doubt but they would have carried it off. A man also, who had dropped some part of his property, and had returned the day before to look for it, was no more heard of; which convinced me that he had been cut off by these wild savages, who appear not to be wanting in inclination to fight when plunder is in view, and who usually add murder to their depredations.

April, 12th. We reached the Conkair Rajah's frontier; and I had fearcely gone beyond it, when intelligence was brought me of a large body of H 4 men

men being perceived posted in the jungle on our lest flank. On reconnoitering them, I found that they had taken possession of a defile, through which the road led; that many of them had matchlocks, with their matches ready lighted; and the rest were armed with spears, bows, and arrows. Finding us aware of them, they did not advance; but a man on horseback came forward, and said, that he was deputed by the Rajah of Pannawar to ascertain who we were; but on my shewing him the Conkair Rajah's paper, he returned to his party, who made way for us to pass them, and proceeding, we foon reached Pannawar. Here I perceived the Rajah, seated on a rising ground, gazing. at us; and immediately sent the Mahratta pass for his inspection, to which, although he shewed some refpect, he would not afford us grain, nor provisions of any kind, and in the most sullen manner rejected all communication whatever. It was not until our utmost entreaties had been made, that we could get guides from him; in which at length succeeding, I departed with much satisfaction from the inhospitable mansion of this Goand chief.

The Bustar frontier is about ten coss distant from this place: the aspect of the country in that direction is very mountainous; and all accounts corroborated the Conkair Rajah's description of it, as being a wilderness, and almost desolate. Our road led from one passage through the hills to another, so that the view could no where be extensive. These are doubtless the ranges of hills, which, continuing along the east side of Berar, connect the mountains of Omercuntuc and Mundilla, with those of Tilingana and Bustar, and extend to the sea-coast in the Northern Circars.

A MARCH of fifty miles more, in three days, brought us to Malliwer, the residence of another Goand chief. The road was much more difficult, and the country one continued wilderness. A considerable declivity,

between

between the mountains, separates the territory of the Rajah of Pannawar from that of Malliwer. I had frequently observed the Goands gather a small red plum from the jungles, and eat it; and this day a sepoy, who had followed their example, presented me some upon a leaf, which, on eating, I sound to be a very pleasant subacid fruit. I afterwards met with abundance of this berry throughout Chanda, and was careful to preserve the stones, some of which I planted in the Circars, and brought the remainder to Bengal.

DOOROOG SHAW, the Rajah of Malliwer, supplied us with a little rice; but, until I had fent the Mahratta pass for his inspection on the following day, and demanded guides, he seemed to concern himself but little about us. The man whom I had deputed upon this service, returned to inform me, that on his prefenting the Purwannah, the Goand chief had thrown it down, and spit upon it; and when he remonstrated with him on this difrespectful conduct towards the Rajah of Berar, he replied, that he was not in Nagpour, and that he apprehended nothing from him. OF this unaccountable conduct I took little notice at the time, but ordered my people to prepare for marching. Dooroog Shaw, perceiving our measures, came towards our eneampment with a large retinue; when every thing being ready to move off the ground, I fent my Moonshee to him, escorted by a naick and six fepoys, with directions to shew him the pass once more, and to caution him against any disrespect to it; for, notwithstanding the Rajah was absent from his capital, I should, on my arrival at Byragur, lose no time in transmitting an account of the insult to the Mahratta officers who were in charge of the government. feemed to be startled at the fight of the fepoys; and, as foon as the meffage was delivered to him, he fent to request a conference with me, to which I affented. A man, called his Dewan, who spoke a little bad Hindevee.

devee, was the interpreter between us. The result of our interview was, that Dooroog Shaw wanted a present from me: I told him his inhospitable treatment did not merit it, and that I should give him none. At this he appeared much offended; but finding that his importunities availed him nothing, he ordered three of his Goands to attend us as guides, with whom we immediately departed, leaving him no time to waver, or to countermand his orders.

HAVING dismounted from my horse in the course of this march, to take the bearings of some remarkable hills, a man, and a lad about ten years old, whose faces I knew not, fell prostrate at my feet. Upon inquiring into the cause of it, I was informed they belonged to a tribe of Hindoo mendicants, known by the name of Goofaigns. The man first raising his head and hands, in the most supplicating posture, requested that I would hear him. Surprise at this uncommon circumstance arrested my attention, and he began to recite his tale. He faid, that he, in company with many other Goofaigns, had fet out from the place of their residence, Mirzapour, (a town well known on the banks of the Ganges,) and that, after having travelled through the English territory to Cuttack, and made the pilgrimage of Jaggernaut, they had resolved to make all the pilgrimages in the fouthern parts of the Peninsula: but wishing first to visit the source of the Mahanuddee, and principal places of fanctity upon the upper parts of the Gunga Godavery, they had taken their route along the banks of the former. travelled unmolested for some time, and subsisted, in fome places, on the alms of the Hindoos, wherever they found them, they had at length fallen in with the hills and jungles inhabited only by the Goands, who had plundered them, and murdered many of their companions, of whose bodies they had made offerings to their God; and that the two pitiful objects before me, were an instance of uncommon good fortune in escaping

escaping from the cruelty of these savages. I desired the man and boy to raise themselves up, when they solicited my protection, and permission to follow among my party; alledging, that, but for my taking compassion on their situation, and feeding them, they must undoubtedly perish. The first request I readily granted: but, as to the second, I told him, that I had been only enabled to travel in these wilds, with so many people, by the most provident precaution; and by making every man carry his food for a certain number of days, until fresh supplies of grain could be procured: that it would not be just in me to deprive any man of his daily allowance, to give to them; but, as there were many Hindoos among my people, they might prevail on some of them to part with a little of their grain for immediate subsistence; and that in three days more we should arrive at Byragur, where their wants would be more effectually relieved.

The conference being ended, I resumed my journey for the day, and was no more importuned by the Goosaigns; but I observed them afterwards among the sepoys, and received many grateful acknowledgments from them for the protection I had afforded them. I found also, on inquiry, that the Hindoo sepoys had sed them.

APRIL 17th. Our journey was continued, without any remarkable occurrence, through the hills and jungles, to within nine miles of Byragur, where we arrived this day. This place was formerly annexed to Chanda, and the country still bears that name, though they are now separate Subahdaries. BISHUN PUNDIT was at this time Subahdar of Byragur, and had rented the country for a specific period by contrast. The government was much of the same nature as that I had met with in Choteesgur. Byragur is considered by the Mahrattas as a large sown, and may consist of about

about three hundred tiled and thatched houses. It has a stone fort on the N. W. side, close under the east face of which runs the Kobragur, which winds round the S. W. side of the town, and being joined by another small river, takes a north-westerly course, and falls into the Wainy, or Baun Gunga.

Byragur appeared to be a place of some traffic: I found here large bodies of Brinjaries from all parts of Choteesgur, and some from the Circars. The trade seemed to consist chiesly of cotton, which is brought from the N. W. parts of Berar and Choteesgur. This is taken up by traders from the Circars, who, in exchange for it, give falt, beetle, and cocoanuts: and I understood that from this cotton the most beautiful cloths in the Northern Circars are manufactured.

The long marches we had made through the hills and jungles from Conkair, having harraffed us a great deal, I resolved to rest a day at this place, as well with a view to gain information of the country before us, as to recover from our satigues. I found the Conkair Rajah's information concerning the Bustar country, and that at this place I should fall in with a high road leading from Nagpour to Masulipatam, very accurate. The Mahratta government being also well established at Byragur, the greatest attention was paid to my pass, and I received every civility and attention in consequence of it.

April 18th. In the evening, Bishun Pundit paid me a visit, and detailed to me a route leading from Byragur; through the city of Chanda, to Rajamandry, in length about two hundred coss, or nearly four hundred miles: but the difference of latitude, in a meridional direction between the two places, not exceeding two hundred geographical miles, that route appeared rather circuitous; and my intelligence from other

other quarters foon convinced me, that, by going to Chanda, I should considerably increase the westing I had already made from Conkair. As the authority of the Mahratta government extended some distance to the eastward of Chanda, I thought I might sasely venture to take a southerly course for sive or six marches, when drawing nearer to that part of the Nizam's territory which I was to pass through, I should probably obtain authentic information concerning the state of it.

The general alarm that seemed to have pervaded the whole of the Berar Rajah's subjects throughout Chanda, in consequence of the Mahratta war with the Nizam, and the armies being upon the point of coming to battle, a multitude of apprehensions had been excited, and various reports were already circulated as to the issue of it. Immense quantities of grain had been sent from Chanda to supply the Mahratta army; and I sound it was increased in price near 200 per cent. dearer than it had been in Choteesgur; rice being sold here at sixteen seers for a rupee.

NACPOUR is not more than seventy miles from By-ragur, in a north-westerly direction. I might now be said to be verging upon the Deccan; and the change of climate, on entering the plain country, had become very perceptible; for the nights, which in the Goands hills had been very chill, were now become hot. The soil in Chanda appears fandy; and the produce is chiefly rice, with small quantities of pulse and sugarcane. Numerous herds of the finest goats, and sheep, are bred in this part of the country.

APRIL 19th. I, moved from Byragur about fixteen miles to Purla, and proceeded through the eastern fide of Chanda, skirting round the Goand hills and jungles which lay to the left of my route. I was informed, that this hilly tract is partly subject to the Mahrattas; but,

but, at the distance of twenty coss, the country belongs to the Bustar Rajah, who is independent; and the inhabitants so wild, that it is never frequented by travellers; and I was told of more instances of Fakeers having been murdered in attempting to penetrate through it.

April 20th. We arrived at Cherolygur, a large and well-peopled village; from which place, I understood, the city of Chanda is only thirty coss distant. Three marches more through a country tolerably open, brought us to Knusery, which is under the Subahdary of Chanda.

April 24th. We reached Tolady, a village near the S. E. frontier of the Chanda Purgunnah; and crossed this day the Wainy, or Baungunge river, which, rising in the hills of Choteesgur, receives all the little streams that have their sources on the S. W. side of the hills that divide the champaign country of Choteesgur from Berar. We had observed for the last two days, many numerous slocks of sheep and goats in the villages. The soil was very sandy; and the white ants so numerous, that they are the people's cloaths while they slept, and scarcely less them or me a pair of shoes.

APRIL 25th. OUR march terminated at the little village of Cotala. I had now proceeded for far in a foutherly direction, as nearly to reach the Chanda frontier; and I was informed that only one small Purgunnah, belonging to the Berar Rajah, intervened between this place and the Nizam's territory, through which a high road leads into the Ellore Circar.

The hostilities which at this time existed between the Nizam and the Mahratta Empire, suggested to me the necessity of proceeding with caution, in passing the frontier of their respective countries; for, having no pass,

pass, nor public papers, to produce to the Nizam's officers, it was very uncertain in what manner they might receive me; or whether they would not refift my entering the territory of their fovereign. The Purgunnah I should first enter upon, subject to the Nizam. was Chinnoor; the capital town of which, bearing the fame name, is fituated on the north bank of the river Godavery. I was informed that this was the only inhabited place in the whole district; for the Zemeendar who rented the country, having rebelled about feven years before, the Nizam had fent a large body of troops to subdue him; but, not being able to get possession of his person, had laid waste the country. and had encouraged his vassals to pillage it likewise. This warfare had continued about four years, when the refractory Zemeendar was at length betrayed by his own adherents, and murdered; after which all his strong holds were reduced. But the calamity occasioned by this scene of rapine and murder, sell heaviest upon the peasantry, who had all sled, and fought refuge in the neighbouring districts; and for the last three years, there had not been an inhabitant in the whole district, excepting a few matchlockmen in the fort of Chinnoor.

As my route would not lay within thirty miles of Chinnoor, I had nothing to apprehend from that quarter; and the rest of the country being desolate, there was nobody to obstruct me until I should have crossed the Godavery, and proceeded about forty coss along the south bank of that river, which would bring me upon the Rajah of Paloonshah's frontier.

Ashruff Row, the Rajah of Paloonshah, had likewife refisted the Nizam's government for many years; and at this time he barely acknowledged allegiance to him. Upon inquiring into his history, character, and in what manner travellers who passed through his country were treated, I was informed, that the old Rajak had left two sons, the eldest of whom, who was only nineteen

nineteen years of age at the time of his father's decease, had succeeded him. That his territory confisted of two Purgunnahs from the Cummun Zemeendary, viz. Paloonshah, and Sunkergherry. He is a Munsubdar of the Empire, and holds the country as a Jagheer, on consideration of his maintaining a certain body of troops for the service of his sovereign. When the Nizam's government was effective in Paloonshah, all the roads were much frequented; but fince the Rajah had been refractory, the roads were shut up; and feveral horse merchants who had attempted to pass through the country, of late years, had been either robbed of their horses, or the Rajah had taken them for much less than their real value. The only travellers who frequented this road at present, were the Brinjaries; and they were only permitted to pass on condition of paying certain duties: but even this the Rajah would not have allowed, but from an apprehension that the Mahrattas might encourage the wild Goands, who live in the hills on the north fide of the Godavery, to plunder his country; as indeed they had formerly done; when the rapine and murder committed by them, had so much distressed the Tillinghy inhabitants, that they stood in the greatest dread of those favages ever fince.

FROM these unfavourable accounts of the Paloonshah Rajah, I had little reason to expect that I should get through his country without trouble, which induced me to direct my attention seriously to the Goand hills and jungles, with a view to discover, if possible, some track through them into the Company's territory near the sea-coast.

APRIL 26th. AFTER skirting along the east side of the Seepour Purgunnah, I arrived near the town of Beejoor, within sour coss of the hills and jungles that are inhabited only by the Goands. My information concerning the Nizam's country being at this place fully

fully confirmed, I resolved to avoid it if possible. I understood that there was no regular road through the hilly country to the sea-coast, but that the Brinjaries sometimes penetrate through it, and that they frequently go into the hills, with sugar and salt, to barter with the Goands for the produce of their jungles. The difference of latitude between Ellore and this place, being little more than two degrees, convinced me that the distance in a direct line could not be great. The route through Chinnoor, and Paloonshah, I knew to be very circuitous, which was another reason for my wishing to avoid it: I therefore pursued every inquiry as to the disposition of the Goand chiefs who posses those immense ranges of mountains, with a view to attempt a passage through them.

THE districts adjoining to the eastern parts of the Mahratta territory, were at this time under INKUT Row, a Goand chief, who had formerly been the principal Rajah in the southern parts of Goandwannah, and who held them as a Jagheer from the Berar government. I was told, that fome attention would be paid to my pass throughout his territory, which extended a confiderable way into the hills; that, upon leaving his frontier, I should enter the country of the Bustar Rajah; and, having a recommendatory letter to that chief, I concluded that his subjects would not materially impede my journey. As the distance, in a direct line, from Beejoor to the sea-coast, could not exceed one hundred and fifty miles, I had every reason to expect, that, on leaving INKUT Row's frontier, I. should be enabled to reach the Company's territory in five or fix long marches. I had resolved, moreover. to keep in referve, provisions for twelve days confumption, that, in the event of accidents or delays, in a wild country, and difficult road, we might not be distressed on this head; and should require nothing from the Goands, but to direct us in the track we were to follow. I entertained but little doubt of meeting Brinjaries. Vol. VII.

Brinjaries, who, for a handsome gratuity, might be induced to affift us, and possibly to conduct me through the Bustar territory; in which case I should be totally independent of the Goands, not conceiving that they would ever oppose me in open force.

APRIL 27th. WITH this plan in view, I entered upon INKUT Row's territory, and, after crossing the Baungunga river, encamped near the village of Dewilmurry, which is situated on its eastern bank. This was the most considerable Goand hamlet I had seen, and might consist of about sifty huts. An extensive spot of ground was cleared and cultivated around it; and beyond the village some losty ranges of hills appeared to rise. The river is here a considerable stream, being augmented by the junction of the Wurda and Wainy Gunga, about three coss to the north-westward of this place.

The usual residence of INKUT Row is at Arpilly, about ten coss distant from Dewilmurry, in a N. E. direction among the hills. He is a surdar of five hundred horse in the Mahratta service, and was at this time absent in command of an expedition against the districts of Edilabad and Neermul, belonging to the Nizam: These are separated from Chanda only by a range of hills, the passes through which had been already secured, to prevent supplies of grain being carried into the enemy's country.

THE Goands had been so much alarmed on our approach, that they all sled out of the village, excepting two or three men who had been converted to the Mahommedan saith, and who no sooner perceived that we were travellers, than their sears subsided, and, after saluting us with the falam aleicum, they returned to take peaceable possession of their dwellings.

We procured here as much rice as we required; and the Goands having given us forage for our cattle gratis, and readily provided us with guides for the enfuing day, I looked upon this as an auspicious omen to my passing through their hills and wilds without molestation. I made some inquiry into the nature of the track before us; but, not being able to understand their jargon, the result was little satisfactory. Their hospitable behaviour, however, encouraged me to proceed.

APRIL 28th. WE marched about fourteen miles. the road leading through a thick forest, in a narrow valley, to the village of Rajaram, where, foon after our arrival, several Goands, who were intoxicated, came out of their huts, making a great uproar. We encamped at a finall tank, about half a mile from the village, leaving the favages to enjoy their inebriation. The guides who had conducted us from Dewilmurry, went into the village, and brought us two men, one of whom spoke Tellinghy. The other, I was told, was a relation of INKUT Row's, and a man of some confequence; which, indeed, from his appearance, I fhould not have discovered; for, excepting a small cloth round his wailt, he was perfectly naked. A little courtefy foon induced him to supply us with some dry grain, fuch as Raggy, and Indian corn; and as far as I could understand, he feigned to regret that his country afforded nothing more acceptable to us. made the Goand chief a trifling prefent, with which he appeared to be well pleased, and shewed an inclination to be much more communicative. This led me to question him concerning the Bustar Goands; when he informed me, that at a very short distance I should find them quite wild; and that even his appearance among them, with a white cloth on, was sufficient to alarm them; for they were all naked, both men and women. He said, that in the direction I was going, I fhould on the enfuing day enter the territory of another Goand Goand chief, who was nephew to Inkut Row, and who, in consequence of my Mahnatta pass, would treat me with attention. Beyond this, I should fall in with a considerable niver, called the Inderouty, and, after crossing it, should enter upon the Bustar Rojah's territory of Bhopaulputtun, where the people are very wild. This intelligence was very pleasing to me; for, not having met with any rice this day, I began to apprehend that I had been neglectful in not taking a larger supply from Dewilmurry, and now determined to avail myself of the first opportunity that might occur, to lay in as much as we could carry.

As I expected to meet with Brinjaries on my way to the Inderowty river, I had determined to wait there until I should have laid in more grain, and procured guides who might be depended upon, for conducting us through the mountainous wilderness between it and the Company's territory. The Goand chief readily surnished guides from this place; but requested that I would release them, on their being relieved by other guides, at the village of Cowlapour, which I should meet with about two coss from Rajarum. This I saithfully promised to comply with.

April 29th. We proceeded towards the Inderowty, and found some Goands ready stationed at Cowlapbur to relieve our guides. Perceiving likewise some Brinjaries in the village, I stopped to inquire of them how far distant the Inderowty river was, and if they thought I could reach it that day. They replied in the negative; and advised me to halt at the village of Charrah, and to proceed to the river on the ensuing day, where I should find some of their tribe encamped.

WITH this scheme in view I went on, and, the guides having been relieved, we moved on briskly. The path now became so slight, as to be barely per-

ceptible, and the jungle almost impenetrable. The hills closed on both fides of us, and I had nothing but a prospect of the most impenetrable and mountainous wilds before me. Our guides frequently gave us the slip, and we immediately lost them in the woods; so that it was with difficulty we reached the village of Charrah. It was evident that the inhabitants we now met with, were more uncivilized than those we had seen on our first entering the Goand territory. The only two guides who had remained with us, delivered over their charge to the people of Charrah; who, however, refused to receive it; and shortly after, men, women, and children, in a body, deferted the village, and fled into the hills, and adjacent wilds. I was at a loss to account for their sudden departure; for, although some symptoms of dissatisfaction, or fear, had appeared in their countenances, on our first arrival, they could have no cause for such an abrupt proceeding. Our wants at this time were but few, and, in reality, confisted only in the necessity we were under of having guides to conduct us through this labyrinth of wilderness; but how to procure one appeared an insurmountable difficulty, until chance threw two Brinjaries in our way, whom I prevailed on to remain with us, and accompany us to the next village on the ensuing day.

April 30th. Having resolved this day to cross the Inderowty, and, if possible, to reach Bhopaulputtun, we commenced our march early. The Brinjaries, who had not been detained without reluctance, and evident marks of sear, now supplicated earnestly to be released. I assured them that I would do so, as soon as a guide could be procured from the village of Jasely, which was said to be only three coss distant, upon which they appeared to be somewhat pacified. I travelled on as usual a little in front; but we had not proceeded far, when one of the Brinjaries informed us, that if the whole party appeared at once, the inhabitants of the village would be alarmed, and would

certainly defert their habitations, by which our hopes of-getting a guide would be frustrated; that, to prevent this, he would go on in front, with only one man, meanly clad, while the rest of the party should remain a little behind. With this scheme in view, the Brinjary proceeded; but had fcarcely gone a hundred yards from a little hill close on our left, when he perceived a confiderable body of men lying in a nulla, which run close under the end of the hill; and, upon our advancing, a discharge of about thirty or forty matchlocks, and many arrows, was fired upon us. This made us halt; and having only two sepoys with me at the time, three or four servants, and the lascar with my perambulator, I resolved to fall back to my party. Upon our retiring, the Goands advanced rapidly from the nulla and jungle; and a party of them made their appearance on the top of the hill. At this instant, fortunately, I was joined by a naick and four sepoys of my advance, and immediately formed them, priming and loading in a little space of open ground on our right. As foon as the sepoys had loaded, I would fain have parleyed with the lavages before firing, but all my endeavours towards it were ineffectual; and as they continued to rush with impetuosity towards us, with their matches lighted, and arrows fixed in their bows, they received the fire of my party at the diftance of about twenty yards; when four or five of them instantly dropped. This gave them an immediate check, and they ran off, hallooing and shouting, into the woods; carrying off their killed and wounded, all but one body; and leaving some of their arms, which fell into our possession. The rest of my people having by this time joined me, I directed a party of a naick and four fepoys to drive them from the hill: this they foon effected; after which, disposing of the small force I had with me, in such a manner as it might act to most advantage if again attacked, we moved forward, with the hope of reaching Bhopaulputtun that night.

Nothing worthy of remark occurred until we came to the Inderowty river; where, not being able to find a ford, we were necessitated to encamp on its bank. I was the more vexed at this disappointment, as it prevented our leaving the territory of the Goand chief whose subjects had treated us with such inhospitality. The village of Jasely, which we had passed, appeared to be deserted; and upon looking into the country around me, I could only perceive about ten huts, which were likewise desolate. As the day closed, I discovered, with my telescope, three or sour men with matchlocks, who feemed to be observing us from behind a rock on the opposite side of the river. They hallooed to us in a language which we could not understand; but the Brinjaries informed us, that they faid we should not be allowed to pass the river, until they had received orders to that effect from Bhopaulputtun. To this I replied, that we had a pass from the Mahratta government, which I would fend for the inspection of their chief next morning. In about an hour after, they hallooed again, inquiring whether we came as friends or enemies. I defired the Brinjaries to reply, that we were travellers who paid for what we wanted, and took no notice of any thing but our road. The found of tom-toms foon after apprifed us, that the Goands were collecting, which induced me to difpose of the cattle, and their loads, in such a manner as we could best defend them if attacked: but the found ceafing, and perceiving no approach of the enemy, we laid down to rest under are is. About midnight, the noise of people paddling through the water, informed us of their approach. They appeared to be crossing the river about half a mile above us, and from the found, I judged them to be in considerable I immediately directed all the lights to be put out, and enjoined a perfect silence. The night was exceedingly dark, which rendered it impossible for the Goands to fee us, or we them, at a greater distance than twenty yards. I fent fcouts to observe their motions. motions, with directions to retire before them, should they advance, which they did not, however, attempt; and, after deliberating about half an hour, they went back.

Finding the people of the country thus inhospitably inclined towards us, I conceived it would be hazardous to send a messenger to Bhopaulputtun; for, should he be detained, or put to death, we might wait in vain for an answer, until the numbers by which we should be surrounded would essectually cut off our retreat. The Goands appeared to be in full expectation of our attempting to pass the river, which they would no doubt have resisted; so that the only way to extricate ourselves from the present embarrassing situation, was to retreat as sast as possible by the road we had come. At midnight rain came on, which rendered the road very slippery for our cattle; but the weather clearing up at day-break, we moved off in persect silence.

MAY 1st. We had proceeded about eleven miles, without being observed, when the discharge of some matchlocks apprifed us that the Goands were at no great distance; and, on coming to the village of Cowlapour, through which our road led, we found about 200 of them posted in it, seemingly with a determination to dispute the passage. It was now about two o'clock in the afternoon, the fun bright, and, as usual at this season of the year, excessively hot. We had got back eighteen miles of our distance, and had yet eight more to go before we could reach Rajarum, at which place I was resolved to take post for that night. The rain had retarded the progress of my camels, but had proved beneficial in other respects; for the water having collected in the hollows of the country, enabled my people to flake their thirst, which the heat, and length of the march, would otherwise have rendered insupportable. Upon our arrival within mulketmusket-shot of Cowlapour, I halted my party at a well, the only supply of water to the village; and defired my people to lose no time in refreshing themselves with a drink, and likewise to refresh the cattle. The Goands fent me repeated threats of the annihilation of my party, unless we could pay them a large fum of money; to which I replied, that I would pay nothing, they having no right to demand it: and I cautioned them against acting in defiance to the pass which I had in my possession from the Rajah of Nagpour, whose country I was in, and whose subjects they were. Upon this they demanded to fee it, which I readily complied with; but none of them being able to read, they appeared doubtful of its authenticity. This parley engaged us for about an hour: when the people of the village growing thirsty, were necessitated to beg us to let them have access to the well: which, in hopes of pacifying them, we readily confented to; but they found the water had been drained by my people; who being now refreshed, I informed the Goands, that it was my determination to proceed immediately. To this they replied, that the fon of their chief was arrived, who assured us, that if our pass was authentic, we might proceed unmolested to Rajarum, where it would be further investigated. This being all we required, we purfued our route, and encamped that evening, about five o'clock. at Rajarum, taking up our post at a tank. Here we found the Goands, who had been very friendly before, all armed, and huddled together in a few detached huts; but nothing, however, occurred to interrupt our repose during the night.

MAY 2d. With the commencement of the day we refumed our march; but had learcely loaded the cattle, and moved off the ground, when a messenger arrived, desiring us to halt until the Goand chief of that part of the country should arrive, which he said would be in two or three hours. I replied, that what the chief might have to say to me, he could as well communicate

municate at Dewilmurry as at Rajarum; and so proceeded on; when the messenger, who appeared to be much surprized at our not paying obedience to the message, went off. About eleven o'clock we arrived at Dewilmurry; and, after crossing the river, encamped on the opposite shore, within the Mahratta territory. Our wants in grain having become very pressing, the people of the village cheerfully opened their shops, and supplied us abundantly with every thing we stood in need of.

WE had observed two or three men following our rear all the way from Rajarum, but little suspected that it was the advance of the Goand chief's party, who had fent a melfenger to us in the morning. arrived about an hour after us at Dewilmurry, and immediately fent a meffage, requiring to fee my pass. It was accordingly fent him; when he shewed every respect to it, and requested an interview with me, which was likewise agreed upon. He came about noon, escorted by his attendants, and, after mutual falutations, a conversation, through the medium of an interpreter, took place. He apologized much for the ill treatment I had received in his country; and expressed some satisfaction, that the people who had attacked me had met with their deferts. He affured me that he had no knowledge of my intention of going through his country, or he would have provided against any accidents of that kind; and was grieved for what we must have suffered in our retreat during fuch excessive hot weather. He concluded by expressing a hope that I would look over it, and not make any complaint against him to the government at Nagpour. I replied, that, not having sustained any material injury, and, as he expressed a great deal of contrition at what had happened, I should not prefer any complaint against him.

Upon inquiring his name, he told me it was LOLL SHAW; that he had lately come from Nagpour, to take charge

charge of his brother INKUT Row's Jagheer, during his absence with the Berar Rajah's forces on the Nizam's frontier. He then departed, requesting permission to visit me on the ensuing day.

THE Mahratta Aumil in Dewilmurry informed us, that it was very fortunate we had lost no time in our retreat; for, notwithstanding the friendly assurances of the Goand chief, all his vassals, and every neighbouring Goand Rajah, had been summoned to cooperate with him, for the purpose of plundering and cutting us off; and that if we had delayed but a few hours more, our retreat would have been almost impossible.

RAJAH LOLL SHAW came again this evening, according to appointment, and was escorted by a numerous retinue, with their pieces loaded, and matches burning. The falutation being over, I inquired of him as to the nature of the country through which it was my intention to have proceeded, by Bhopaulputtun, to the Company's territory. He candidly informed me, that I had done well in returning; for that the road, to my party, would have been almost impracticable. He described the country as being very mountainous, and full of passes, which are exceedingly steep: that the only travellers who ever venture through it, are a few Brinjaries, who experience the greatest difficulties in their progress through these wild regions: that the inhabitants are of a more savage nature than any others of the Goand tribes; both fexes going naked, and living entirely upon the produce of their woods: that even the people in his country, who, by communication with the Mahrattas, had become in some degree civilized, eat grain only during three months of the year, and subsist on roots, and fruits, during the remaining nine months. That after passing Bhopaulpurun, we should not have been able to procure grain for our fubfiflence, and should have

have found no other road than a slender foot path, in many places almost impervious: that the wild Goands, moreover, would have continually harassed us, and we must have been frequently bewildered for want of a guide.

From what information I could collect, it did not appear that the want of grain in the hills, and forests, between us and the Circars, proceeded from any desiciency in the soil, for the trees which grow in it are large and flourishing, but from the unsettled nature of the wild inhabitants, to whose minds a predatory life is most agreeable; and while they find sustenance to their satisfaction, produced spontaneously by nature, they do not feel the necessity of toiling for greater luxuries. Being unacquainted with any greater enjoyment than that of roving in their wilds, as their sancy directs, they consider the occupations of husbandry and agriculture as supersluous, and not necessary for their welfare.

LOLL SHAW likewise informed me, that the Goands beyond his country had no matchlocks, which his people had been taught the use of by the Mahrattas; but they were all provided with bows and arrows; that they usually fix the bow with their feet, directing the arrow and drawing the cord with their hand, and throw the arrow with precision to a considerable distance.

I computed that Loll Shaw's party might amount to 500 Goands, most of them large and well-made men. Upon comparing them with the fepoys, they appeared in no wise inferior to them in stature, but very black; and I was informed that the Mahrattas considered them as better soldiers than even the Rajepoots. In the little skirmish I had with them, I saw no reason to think so; but if I had had to contend with Loll Shaw's men, who were certainly better armed than those who had attacked us, I might, perhaps, have found them a more formidable enemy.

I HAD now no alternative in proceeding to the Company's territory, but to go more to the fouthward. by the road I have mentioned before, as leading through the Paloonshah Rajah's country into the Ellore Circar. Upon inquiring of Loli Shaw if he could give me any information as to the fituation and views of that chief, he replied, that he was then at variance with the Nizam; but having once feen his Dewan, and being on terms of friendship with him, he offered to give me a letter recommending me to his care and attention. A more agreeable proposal he could not have made, and I thankfully accepted his offer; but the Goand chief being unable to write, fome delay occurred before a man was found who could write in the Tellinghy character: he then dictated the letter, and having affixed his feat to it, delivered it to me.

LOLL SHAW having voluntarily done me a kindness, I thought some acknowledgment would be proper on my part. He had been very curious in examining the arms of the sepoys who were standing around me, and expressed much surprise at the instanceous manner in which he had seen them discharged. I took this opportunity of presenting the chief with my sowling-piece, which being fired before him, he received it with every mark of gratitude and satisfaction, and said, that it should be kept in his samily, as a friendly memorial of the Fringhys; (Europeans;) and added, that I might rest assured his Goands would never more offer me any molestation. The interview had now lasted five hours until ten at night, when he rose up to take leave, and assuring me of eternal friendship, departed.

May 3d. We returned to Beejoor, where we fell in again with the high road, and proceeded the same day

day to Nuggong. The Mahratta Aumil at Beejoor readily relieved our guides, and congratulated me on my escape from the mountains and jungles in which, he faid, so many of his people had been lost, and never more heard of. He informed me, that even the Brinjaries, who never ventured among these Goands until the most solemn protestations of security were given, had in many instances been plundered. Berar Rajah, however, was much indebted to these travelling merchants for having conciliated, and, in some degree, civilized a number of those wild people: for the traffic which they carry among them, parti-cularly in falt and fugar, had introduced a tafte for luxuries, which many of them now could not eafily dispense with. This had also induced them to be more industrious in collecting the produce of their jungles; such as lac, iron ore, and other articles for barter: and had necessitated their affording protection to the Brinjaries. In the course of this traffic, which had now lasted about twenty-five years, the desire of the Goands for falt and fugar had confiderably increased, and tended more to their civilization than any other means: for before they had tasted or acquired a relish for those articles, no man could venture among them; and he affured me, that it had a more powerful effect than the whole force of the . Mahratta arms, in rendering them obedient to their government.

Soon after leaving Beejoar, we began gradually to descend, and on our arrival at Nuggong, we sound the country so parched, that sorage could not be procured; which compelled me to seed my cattle on the leaves of the Banyan tree,* and to increase their allowance of dry grain. The price of grain had very much increased since we had lest Byraghur, but was not now to be bought at more than eight seers for a rupce. A report having reached this place, that, in the

the skirmish between the Goands and my party, some hundreds had fallen on both sides, the inhabitants had, in consequence, taken the alarm; and it was not until I had produced my pass, that any of them would come near us.

MAY 4th. WE proceeded to Ewunpilly, a Mahratta post, on the south-east frontier of the Berar Raiah's country, at which place, in a finall mud fort, were stationed about 200 horse, and some men with matchlocks. The alarm, which, on our approach. appeared to pervade them, was fuch, that they immediately retired into the fort, where they secured themfelves. I allowed my camp to be pitched, and waited till we had all taken some refreshment, before I sent my pass for the inspection of the commanding officer. My Moonshee being then deputed with it, was refused admittance into the fort; and the Mahratta's threatened to fire upon him if he did not immediately retire. He told them, that he had come without arms, and with only a paper to shew to any of their party who could read: upon which, after fome little hesitation, they allowed him to come to the gate. When they had inspected the pass, they said it was a very old one, and declared that it must be a counterseit; for, from what part of the English territory could I have come? They then very augrily told the man to go away, and to give them no further trouble. I was much vexed at their inhospitable conduct, and sent him once more to reafon with them upon the consequences of acting in defiance to the order and feal of the Berar Rajah; and to tell them, that if they would not comply with the terms prescribed in it, I should wait at Ewunpilly, and dispatch an account of their conduct to the Subahdar of Seepour, who refided only at the distance of ten coss westward. It was not, however, until several hours had elapsed, that they could be persuaded we were not an enemy: but towards noon, they came out of the fort, and by the evening were quite pacified. At this time the Mahratta officer on command came

to pay me a visit. I chided him for his alarm: to which he very reasonably replied, that circumspection in his situation was but proper; for, as the Nizam had many Fringhys in his service, how was he to know that I was not one of them? As it was not my interest to enter into further altercation with him on the fubiect, and his fears seemed to have subsided, I began to interrogate him concerning the extent of the Mahratta territory to the fouthward; and asked him if he would venture to recommend me to the care and attention of the Nizam's officers in the adjoining district of Chinnoor. He replied, that the Mahratta territory extended only three coss further; and that his Rajah being then at war with the Nizam, he could not venture to enter into any correspondence with his people. He then confirmed the accounts I had before received, of the whole district of Chinnoor being desolate.

HAVING now no other alternative, but to proceed by that route, and reflecting on the frequent instances in which I had been distressed for want of guides, I instructed some of my people to endeavour to get three or four intelligent men, who should engage to accompany us to Ellore, or Rajamandry; and to promise, at the same time, that they should be paid very largely for it. I considered that if the Paloonshah Rajah should prove hostile, nothing but this would enable me to push through his country with rapidity, or any tolerable fuccess. The difficulty of our situation seemed, indeed, to be impressed upon the whole party, and every man in it appeared to interest himself in our mutual welfare. They cheerfully submitted to such hardships as the necessity of the case required, particularly in agreeing to carry grain through the wilderness we had to traverse. Three Mahratta Brinjaries were at length prevailed upon to conduct us to Rajamandry, whose demands for compensation were enormous; yet I was neceffitated to comply with them; and the Mahratta officer

officer in command, being applied to for the responsibility of their conduct, said he would answer for their fidelity.

May 5th. Having now supplied ourselves with grain for seven days, we resumed our journey. road led along the west bank of the Baun Gunga river. through a very wild country; and we had no fooner passed the Mahratta boundary, than we entered a thick forest. The mountains appeared to come close down to the east bank of the river, and every prospect I had of them feemed to coincide with the accounts I had received of the wild country in that quarter. Soon after croffing the confines, I heard the found of tomtoms for a confiderable distance, which was evidently a fignal of alarm; and as we proceeded, the ruins of feveral villages occurred. About eleven o'clock, the fun being intenfely hot, and there being no water near the road, I was under the necessity of halting, until my people, and cattle, could be refreshed with water from the Baun Gunga. That river was, in general, from half a mile to a mile from the road, but being separated from us by a thick forest, it was with difficulty we could penetrate to it. Having proceeded about seventeen miles to the ruins of the little village of Unnar, I halted at that place until three in the afternoon. The extreme heat of the day would have induced me to halt here for the night; but it was necesfary to proceed, and to cross the Godavery before dark, in order that the Nizam's people might not have time to obstruct our passage. The road continued gradually descending, and the soil was now wholly rock and coarse sand. Upon our arrival near the Godavery, I discovered a large fort upon an eminence, at the confluence of the Baun Gunga, and with my glass could perceive a white flag. The found of tom-toms foon after apprised us, that, although the villages were deferted, the woods were full of men; and that the people Vol. VII. K

ple at their alarm-posts were on the watch. On coming to the river, we discovered several small parties of matchlockmen scattered along the sands in its bed. I halted to collect my party, and finding the stream very shallow, we crossed over without molestation, and encamped in a clear spot of ground on the southern bank.

I MIGHT now be faid to have entered upon that part of India which is known by the name of Tellingana, the inhabitants of which are called Tellinghys, and speak a language peculiar to themselves. This dialect appears to be a strong resemblance to what, in the Circars, is called Gentoos.

After the heat of the day, and length of the march, our fituation close to the river had a very refreshing and pleasing effect. I was highly delighted with the romantic view which the confluence of the Godavery and Baun Gunga rivers now presented. I could see quite up to the fort of Suruncha; and an opening beyond it likewise shewed the junction of the Inderowty river with the latter. The blue mountains, and distant forests, which terminated the prospect, rendered the whole a very sublime and interesting scene.

THERE is here a small Pagoda sacred to the Hindoo goddess Cali, situated on the north-east bank of the river, at the confluence, which imparts its name to this passage over the Gunga Godavery, called Califair Ghaut, and annually draws a great concourse of pilgrims, who, from ideas of purification, come to wash in the waters of the confluent streams.*

THE bed of the Godavery at this ghaut is about a mile in breadth, and confifted at this feason of a wide expanse of sand. The quantity of water, where we crossed

^{*} The confluences of all the principal rivers throughout Hisclosetan, as well as their sources, are places of Hindoo worship and superstition; and to these many thousands of pilgrims annually resort.

erossed it, was inconsiderable, being divided into four or five little streams, the sum of whose widths did not exceed one hundred seet, and was no where more than sisteen inches deep.

MAY 6th. WE commenced our march along the western bank of the Godavery. On passing the ruins of the town of Califair, I could perceive the remains of an old fort, a mosque, and a Mussulman's tomb. I was informed that this place had been the residence of the Nizam's officer who had formerly been intrusted with the charge of the district of Chinnoor, and who having joined the Zemeendar in refisting the Nizam's government, had afterwards fallen a victim to his treachery. My march this day was through a thick forest, gradually descending the whole way, and terminated at a fort, around which there had formerly been a confiderable town, called Mahadeopour; but which, excepting a small number of armed men, and a few miserable Tellinghy inhabitants, appeared now to be desolate. The fort had a double rampart and fosse, and had evidently been a place of some strength. The innumerable marks of cannon-shots on the walls, indicated that it had stood a siege, and had also made a confiderable refistance. We had no founer encamped, than a man came out to inquire for news of the Nizam's and Mahratta armies, and what was likely to be the issue of the war; but not finding his curiosity gratified, he returned.

MAY 7th. After leaving this place, we proceeded twenty-three miles, and encamped near a well on a small spot of open ground in the jungle. Many deferted villages occurred on the march; and the road was for the most part over a heavy sand, without a drop of water near it. The periodical rains having sailed in this part of the country for several years,

the tanks, wells, and refervoirs, had mostly dried up, which rendered the heat and length of our journey this day the more distressing. The extreme thirst of my people and cattle, soon exhausted the little water we found in the well; and the river being five miles distant, and separated from us by a ridge of hills, was consequently out of our reach. Luckily, the guides whom we had brought from Ewunpilly, and who had frequently travelled this road, informed us, that about the distance of a mile, there were a few Goand huts, the inhabitants of which were supplied with water from a spring. We set out immediately in search of it, and, to our great joy, found it was not dried up; and, on digging a little in the sand, abundance of water slowed out.

MARCHING at this season, in the heat of the day, oppressed us exceedingly; but the unsettled state of the country, and the probable risk of being attacked, rendered it unavoidable. Although the road was a beaten one, and tolerably clear of brush-wood, yet the forest on each fide being excessively thick, might, if we had moved in the dark, have enabled an enemy to come upon us unawares; whereas, by travelling in the day, and taking our ground in a clear spot, we were always in a fituation to defend ourselves with advantage. The women and children who had accompanied the sepoys, and who, at the commencement of our journey, had been accustomed to ride, were now. from the reduced state of the cattle, compelled to walk. They appeared, however, to be fully impressed with the necessity of the case; and although they would have suffered less by travelling in the cool of the night, yet they must have created considerable confusion, in case of an attack at that time; exclusive of which confiderations, the day-light was essentially necessary to my geographical pursuits.

MAY 8th. WE reached the Paloonshah Rajah's frontier, and our journey terminated at the village of Etoor, where we fell in once more with the Godavery.

MAY 9th. PROCEEDED to Naugwarrum. When we came within two miles of this place, the beating of tom-toms, and blowing of horns, again apprifed us of an armed force being in the woods. Our guides informed us that it was the alarm-posts of CUMMUNY Booey, a Zemeendar of Naugwarrum, and vassal to ASHRUFF Row, the Rajah of Paloonshah. They advised me to proceed with caution; and, being known to his people, they proposed to go on first, and inform them who we were. I halted to collect my party; and soon after one of the guides, who had gone forward to the village, returned, with an account that the people would not credit a word he had said, but had abused him; and that the inhabitants were all armed, and assembled to oppose us. Having no alternative, but to proceed, I advanced with my party, and took a circuit by the river to avoid the village. The rest of my people followed in the rear; and as we did not pass within reach of their fire-arms, they continued to gaze at us, without attempting to offer any hostility, or to quit their post. We then took up our ground on the bank of the river; and as foon as the camp was pitched, I advanced with two of our guides, and a few of the sepoys, towards the village. We beckoned to some of the villagers to come forward, when a few of them came out to meet us, and finding we were not enemies, their alarm immediately subsided. They informed us that the reason of their keeping up these posts, was to be on their guard against the Goands, who, at this feason, while the river is low, sometimes take the opportunity of croffing, and furprizing them in the night. The rapine and murder which they had fuffered by these sudden attacks, kept the Tellinghys in constant alarm.

Tuis

This afternoon, perceiving a little eminence not far from our camp, which seemed to present a favorable fituation for viewing the country, I went to it; and was much gratified with a prospect of about fifteen miles of the course of the Godavery. Immense ranges of mountains, and forests, appeared to extend from Suruncha, along the east side of the river, to the quarter opposite this place; and thence to the foutheastward as far as the eye could reach. The wild scenery which now presented itself, and the rugged appearance of the mountains, made me reflect with fatisfaction on having relinquished the attempt of penetrating through a country where every imaginable difficulty and danger must have been encountered; and in which, perhaps, our whole party would have been cut off.

Our guides, who, in confideration of the very large recompence I had offered them, had undertaken to conduct us into the Ellore Circar, were now exceedingly cautious of shewing themselves in the villages; and whenever grain, or any other article, was to be purchased, it was with the utmost reluctance that they could be persuaded to interpret and deal for us with the Tellinghys. They alledged, that should they be recognized, they would undoubtedly, on their return, be seized, and put to death.

Ar Etoor we met some people, conducting about forty carts loaded with cotton, who, we were told, had come from Chanda, and were proceeding to the manufactories at Maddapollom, in the Company's territory. Their cattle having suffered much from the heat, and want of water, they had halted at this place to refresh, previous to the continuance of their journey. It was pleasing to meet with travellers subject to our own government in this inhospitable country; and this circumstance evidently shewed, that the road had long been frequented. I was informed, that

in seasons when water and grain are in abundance, the *Brinjaries* frequently pass this way from the seacoast to *Chanda*.

MAY 10th. I PROCEEDED to Mangapeit, which is the head of a small Purgunnah bearing the same name, and is the residence of the Paloonshah Rajah's officer NARRAIN Row. This is a large village, fituated closeon the west bank of the Godavery, and has a little mud fort in the middle of it. On coming to this place, we perceived a confiderable body of armed men, who, foon after our arrival, appeared extremely hostile, and uttered a variety of threats against us, of impriforment and destruction to the whole party. followers were much intimidated thereby; but, to prevent the panic increasing, I ordered the camp to be struck, and prepared for battle. The effect of this was very visible in the immediate alteration of their conduct towards us; and the altercation ended by an interview with NARRAIN Row. He was much furprised at the prelude to our conversation, by my prefenting him with the letter from Lol Shaw; and had no sooner perused it, than our affairs began to wear a better aspect. Being a Tellinghy, and speaking no other language, we could only converse through the medium of an interpreter; from whom I foon underflood, that he proposed to purchase my Toorky horse. I answered, that I was not a merchant, and could not affent to his proposal. He then said, that such a fine animal had never come into his country, and begged to know if I would part with it upon any other terms, as he wished to present it to his young Rajah, who was very fond of horses. Upon this my interpreter informed him, that I could give no politive answer for the present; but that if he would send a respectable man with me as far as the Company's territory, which I hoped to reach at furthest in seven days, I should then have less occasion for the very useful services of the animal, and might feel less reluctance to part with K 4 him.

him. Finding he could not prevail on me to fell him the Toorky, he then tried to purchase a little horse belonging to the Jemadar of my escort, and one of the fepoys' tattoos. As the animals were much reduced, and a good price was offered, bargains were very near being concluded; when conceiving it might create a suspicion of our being on a trading concern, I immediately put a stop to the traffic; and as they did not offer any impediment to my proceeding, I ordered the cattle to be loaded, and we moved off, leaving Narrain Row and his people somewhat disappointed.

The mountains continue close down to the east side of the Godavery, opposite this place; and the wild inhabitants sometimes extend their depredations into the country on this side of the river. The Tellinghys detailed to us some horrid acts of barbarity that had attended the pillaging of their village by the Goands: these, they said, were always committed by secret nocturnal expeditions; in which the mountaineers had frequently eluded the vigilance of their alarm-posts, and surprised the villagers while at rest; and neither the desenceless persons of women, or children, had, in such cases, escaped their savage sury. Their weapons are bows and arrows, hatchets, and lances.

HAVING afterwards heard of a people, who, in the Northern Circars, are called Coands, and whose depredations into those provinces are attended with similar acts of cruelty, I naturally conceived them to be the same tribe; but, in a conversation with CUMAUL MAHUMMED, the officer in charge of the Mahratta Purgunnah of Manickpatam, and who appeared to be well acquainted with the different tribes of mountaincers subject to the Berar government, he informed me, that these are a different race from the Goands. The latter, he said, are much larger men, and had,

in many instances, been made good subjects; but the Coands are inferior in stature, and so wild, that every attempt which had been made to civilize them had proved ineffectual. I never, indeed, met with a people who shewed less inclination to hold converse of any kind with strangers, than these mountaineers in gene-This disposition in a great measure frustrated every attempt I made to acquire information of their manners and customs; among which the facrifice of birds, by suspending them by the tips of their wings to the trees and bushes, on each side of the road, and leaving them to perish by degrees, was almost the only peculiar one I could discover. The cause of this cruel practice I never could learn; yet I frequently observed, that, although the birds were suspended at a convenient height for travellers to pass under them, the Coands would never do fo, but always took a circuit to avoid them. I once observed a ram extended by the feet in the same manner. Their food appeared to be the most simple imaginable, consisting chiefly of the roots and produce of their woods. for the most part naked; and when pinched by cold, they alleviate it by making fires, for which their forests supply them with abundance of fuel; and when the heat of the fun becomes oppressive, they seek shelter, and recline under the shade of large trees.

MAY 14th. HAVING met with no molestation during the three preceding marches, we arrived this day at Nainpour, where we encamped in a tope of Palmyra* trees, close to the west bank of the Godavery river, and opposite to the town of Badrachill. At this place, the Rajah of Paloonshah collects taxes upon all goods passing through his country by this road; and there were at this time about two hundred Hackerys,† and a prodigious number of bullocks, detained, until the duties

^{*} Borussus Flubelliformis.

duties on the goods which they carried should be affessed, and paid. This amounted to not less than twenty-five per cent. The merchandize was cotton, which the Mahrattas were exporting into the Circars; in exchange for which commodity, they usually import salt, and cocoa-nuts, into Chanda, Nagpour, and other parts of Berar.

The hills which border the east bank of the Godavery, from Magnapeit to this place, are of a moderate height; and the mountains appeared now to retire about seven miles inland. The space between the two ranges is covered with a thick forest.

THERE is a Pagoda at Badrachill, facred to SETA, the confort of RAMA. The worship of the goddess is in high repute at this place, and vast numbers of pilgrims refort to it. The temple is fituated on a little hill about forty feet high, but is meanly constructed. I was informed that the Rajah of Paloonsnah had recently presented a small golden idol, or moorut, to it. The town is fituated about 200 yards to the fouthward of the Pagoda, close under another little hill, and confifts of about one hundred huts, in the middle of which was a tiled habitation, faid to be the abode of the principal Brahmen; and the whole is surrounded by a thick jungle. From the great reputation of this place, I expected to have found a more confiderable town, and was therefore much furprized at its mean appearance.

Soon after our arrival, the man in charge of the post came to our encampment, and proposed to purchase the horses and camels. To this he received a severe rebuke, and was told that we were not merchants. Finding, after many fruitless attempts, that none of the cattle were to be sold, he then began to assess duties on them, which necessitated my giving directions for his being turned out of the camp. After this,

this, we had no further intercourse with him; but it was evident that he had dispatched several expresses to Paloonshah, with information concerning us, as NAR-RAIN ROW, I afterwards found, had done from Mangapeit.

MAY 15th. At day-break we moved off, in high spirits, at the prospect of the speedy respite which our arrival in the Company's territory, in three days more; would give to our toils. I had observed, since our entrance into the Paloonshah Rajah's territory, many Teak trees, but none from which timbers of large dimensions could be formed. Being told that we should not meet with any more after this day's march, I was giving directions to a lascar to cut half a dozen sticks, when a horseman rode up to me, and faid, that I should do well to return, and encamp: for the Rajah having heard of my entering his country. had fent a Vakeel to know by what authority I had prefumed to do fo. I asked him his name and occupation. He replied, that his name was Mortizally. and that he commanded a body of Tellinghys in the Rajah of Paloonshah's service, a party of whom would foon arrive with the Vakcel. I expressed much aversion to countermarch any part of the distance I had come that day, and proposed to proceed, and encamp at the first convenient spot where water and forage could be procured, and to wait there for the arrival of the Vakeel. After some altercation, this was agreed upon; when we proceeded about two miles further, and encamped at a small village, called Pocullapilly.

In an hour after, the Vakeel arrived, attended by about fifty armed men. He informed me that he was deputed by the Rajah of Paloonshah to ascertain who I was, and to inquire by what authority I was passing through his territory. I shewed him the Mahratta

pass, which would precisely afford him that information. He desired I would give him the papers; and if I had any pass from the Nizam, that I would likewise deliver it into his hands; in order that they might be forwarded for the inspection of the Rajah, whose pleasure would soon be communicated regarding me and my people. I replied, I had no pass from the Nizam, but that he might have copies of such of my papers as he had seen; and added, that being within two days journey of the British territory, and my business urgent, I hoped the Rajah would not detain me unnecessarily, but would allow me to proceed as soon as possible. The Vakcel then retired with my Moonshee to copy the papers, assuring me that I should have an answer before night.

MATTERS remained in this state until about four o'clock in the afternoon, when I received information that a large body of men were posted at the pass of Soondpilly Gundy, through which our road was to lead, with orders to resist us in case we should attempt to force our way to the Company's frontier. The accounts of this force varied from one to three thousand I had resolved to wait the result of the Rajah's inspection of the copy of my Mahratta Purwannah, before I should determine upon any other plan of action; and knowing that I had not done his country, or any of his people, the least injury, and that he could have no just plea for molesting me, I was not without hope that he would let me proceed. a few minutes after, the found of horses' feet induced me to look out of my tent, when a body of horsemen inflantly gallopped in between the tent ropes. My people were at this time repoling in the shade, during the heat of the day, all but two fentries, who were on guard, and who immediately, on the alarm, came running to my tent. I dispatched a man to call the Vakeel, while the fepoys, who were very alert, got under arms; and I foon joined them with the other two men, being prepared for the worst that could happen.

now defired the horsemen to retire, and inquired the meaning of their intruding upon us in so abrupt a manner. The man who commanded came forward, and faid that he had his Rajah's orders to take me to Paloonshah. At this instant the Vakeel arrived. asked him the meaning of these measures, after matters had been adjusted on the faith of his word, and I was waiting till the Rajah's pleasure should be made known to me. I requested that, to prevent hostilities commencing immediately, he would order the horsemen to fall back. He advanced towards them for that purpose, which gave me an opportunity of ascertaining their number; when I counted twenty-five, all well armed and mounted; but in their rear was a large body of infantry, many of whom were armed with European muskets and bayonets; and the whole might have amounted to three hundred men.

Hap this been all the force they could have brought against me, I should have paid very little attention to the Rajah or his people; but if this body should annoy us in the rear, and I had had to force may way through the pass of Soondpilly Gundy, it was not probable that, with my small escort, consisting only of thirty-two sirelocks, I could have come off without the loss at least of my baggage. As the Paloonshah district joined to the Company's territory, it impressed me strongly with the idea, that when it should be ascertained that I was a servant of the British government, the Rajah would not venture to do me any material injury, unless my conduct should justify it by first commencing hostilities.

The horsemen being now retired, the Vakeel came back, and begged that I would be pacified; upon which I ordered the sepoys to fit down with their arms, and went with a small party to my tent. The Vakeel then explained to me the cause of the sudden appearance of the troops. It had been occasioned, he said, by a report which had reached Paloonshah, of my having,

having, in defiance of the Rajah's orders, intended to force my way to the Company's frontier: that he, being much incensed at the disrespect shewn to his authority, had sent this detachment to bring my party to Paloonshah; and in the event of our resisting, had given orders to plunder and harrass us; which would delay our progress, until a man should arrive at the post of Soondpilly Gundy, with instructions to fell the trees in the road, and stockade the pass.

THE man in command of the troops having difmounted, came with Mortizally into my tent; when we commenced a conversation upon the measures which were to be purfued. They at first insisted upon my instantly complying with the orders they had received to carry me to Paloonshah. This I positively refused, alledging, that we had come a long march that day, and were not in a condition to undertake a second. I told them, that I had no objection to go to Paloonshah the next day; but that, if the Rajah thought I would submit to be treated in the smallest degree beneath that dignity and respect which he might think due to his own person, he would find himself mistaken; for I would fooner burn the whole of my baggage, to prevent its falling into his possession; and would contend with him to the utmost of my ability in forcing a pasfage to the Company's frontier. I added, that the Rajah's country being contiguous to our own, he must be well aware of our military reputation. To these observations they seemed in some degree to affent; but replied, that such measures had been taken to prevent our escape, that it would be impossible for us to effect it; and that I should do well to go to Paloonshah, where, they did not doubt, the Rajah would shew me every attention. Finding, however, that I was determined not to move any more that day, they agreed that we should commence our march to Paloonfhah early the cufuing morning.

The

THE Rajah's people now retired to the village, where they took up their abode for the night. As foon as they were gone, I ordered the camp to be struck, the cattle to be picketted, and the baggage to be piled up around them; and then distributed my people in four parties, so as to form nearly a square. I had chosen on our arrival a commanding situation; and we had a well of fine water within twenty-five yards, which would have been completely under our fire. Thus fituated, and having with us grain for five days, the Rajah's people would not have found it an eafy matter to make any ferious impression on the party. But our greatest want was ammunition, having not more than fifty rounds each man, which, had hostilities commenced, would, in all probability, have been expended in the first contest. My followers were impressed with a considerable degree of alarm at our fituation, and the women fet up a most difinal lamentation. To put a stop to the panic was absolutely necessary; but it was not till every conciliatory meafure had been exhausted, and threats used, that I could oblige them to keep their fears to themselves, and weep in silence. The fepoys, however, scemed to take the matter very coolly, which enabled me, after giving them directions to wake me on the first alarm, to lay down to rest with some confidence. Their alertness, I found, did not a little disturb the Rajah's people who were encamped in the village; but the whole night passed without any serious occurrence.

MAY 16th. EARLY this morning I fent notice to the Rajah's people that we were ready to attend them to Paloonshah; and soon after we all moved off in separate parties. The road for the first six miles was through a thick forest; and so narrow, that our cattle travelled with much difficulty: we then sell into a high road, and moved on pretty briskly. During the march, Mortizally frequently came up to me, and seemed to be greatly taken with my horse; an account of which, I afterwards sound, had been communicated

to the Rajah. When arrived within fix miles of Paloonshah, a range of hills seemed to close upon us, and we came to the top of a very confiderable acclivity. I now found that we had been deceived in the distance; for instead of five coss, as they had told us, it proved to be fixteen miles. The fun began to be intenfely hot, and the thirst of my people became almost insupportable. At the top of the pass were feveral batteries for the defence of this approach to Paloonshah; and we perceived a circular cavity, which fortunately proved to be a Bowlie, that had been funk, in this elevated region, for supplying the post with water. Many of the party, with a view to slake their thirst, descended into it. The descent was by a set of circular steps, of which they counted one hundred: these being rudely formed, and about two feet each in depth, rendered the approach to the water so difficult and laborious, that feveral of the men were induced to return before they had gone half way; and those who had reached the bottom, found themselves but little benefitted by it, after the fatigue of re-ascending. I computed the depth of the well to be at least 180 feet.

From this place we began to descend by a road, in some parts easy, and steep in others; though in the aggregate the descent was very considerable. Our march having hitherto been in a thick forest, the prospect of the town and fort of Paloonshah, situated in a rich and luxuriant valley, now became very pleasing. We passed a barrier which defends the approach to the town, and consists of a strong rampart, faced with masoury, which is connected with the hills on the east side of it. A narrow and rocky desile, winding round the west side of the rampart, is the only entrance to the valley.

WE advanced to a very fine mango grove, and halted under the shade of the trees until the Rajah should be made acquainted with our arrival; and a place

a place pointed out for us to encamp on. This gave me an opportunity of observing the west side of the town and fort, which were now only half a mile distant. A man soon arrived, and shewed us a spot to encamp on, which was about a mile further to the south-eastward, in a mango grove, and near the bank of a rivulet in which a little stream was slowing. This cool and pleasant situation, with the romantic appearance of the hills, which rose immediately behind us, dissipated, in a great measure, the disagreeable resections which had been caused by our compulsory visit to this place.

We had no sooner encamped, than the Rajah sent MORTIZALLY to congratulate me on my arrival, and to express his solicitude for the inconvenience I must have suffered from the heat; likewise to inform me, that when I should have refreshed myself, and taken some repose, he would send people to inquire into the reason of my coming into his country, and ascertain who I actually was. No surther occurrence worthy of remark happened during the rest of the day; excepting the posting of a body of about 500 men between us and the fort; I was therefore at leisure to direct my attention to the scene around me.

The valley in which Paloonshah is situated, is about four miles wide, and, notwithstanding the failure of the periodical rains, had every appearance of verdure and sertility. The fort is a square of about 300 yards, and has a large round tower at each angle. The entrance to it is on the east side. The rampart is faced with masonry, and is surrounded by a deep dry ditch. It is well covered with a glacis, and may be considered as a place of some strength. With my telescope I could perceive some large iron guns in the embrasures; which, the Rajah's people said, were twelve-pounders that he had brought from Masuli-vol. VII.

patam. The Rajah's dwelling is a finall Hindoostanny house, the top of which I could see above the walls. The town was by far the largest I had seen since leaving Chunarghur, and appeared to be very populous. It is at least two miles in circumference, but consists, for the most part, of poor Tellinghy huts. The valley is surrounded on all sides by losty ranges of hills, the passes through which are the only accesses to Paloon-stah.

Some of my people, who had been admitted into the arfenal, reported that they had feen a manufacture for matchlock guns, jinjalls,* spears, fabres, and every species of weapon commonly used by the natives. The Rajah had likewise a train of six brass field-pieces, which, with their limbers and tumbrils complete, appeared to be well taken care of.

In the evening the Vakeel, accompanied by three or four well-dressed men, came to my tent. He detailed a number of incidents relative to the desperate fituation of the Fringhys in the Circars, and reprefented the removal of the troops about that time from Ellore to Masulipatam, for a more healthy situation, as a defeat and flight, previous to embarkation; and the return of the two battalions from Hydrabad, as a certain omen of destruction to the British interests in that part of India: and he concluded by informing me, that it was the Rajah's intention to fend the whole of my party to Hydrabad. Finding these schemes to intimidate me had not the defired effect, and that, as I was acquainted with the Nizam's capital, and the characters of his principal officers, I had no objection to march towards it the enfuing morning, their aftonish. ment was fo great, that they immediately departed to make a report thereof to the Rajah.

Towards night, we repeated the precaution we had taken for our defence, on the preceding evening, at Pocullapilly. This created a great alarm, and they immediately

^{*} A wall-piece, carrying a ball of near a pound weight.

immediately reinforced the parties that had been stationed to guard the avenues to the fort. The whole of the troops which were now applied to this purpose, could not be less than 1500 men; which shewed that, notwithstanding their great superiority in numbers, the Rajah was under no small apprehension at our situation so near his fortress. The whole night, however, passed without any alarm.

MAY 17th. This morning the Vakeel came to me with a request, that I would fend my Toorky horse, and three sheep which I had brought with me from Chunarghur, for the Rajah's inspection. This I readily complied with; and at the same time demanded an interview with the Rajah, and permission to depart; alledging, that my business was very urgent, and would admit of no further delay. In about an hour the horfe was returned, with a very polite message from the Rajah, expressing how much he had been gratified by the fight of so beautiful an animal, and requesting to know if any thing would induce me to part with him: but as the evening had been appointed for the interview, I deferred returning an answer until that period should arrive. In the mean time the Rajah had detained my sheep, which, having tails, were considered here as great curiofities; and had fent me three others in return, the produce of his country, on whom nature had not bestowed that curious appendage. The man who had taken charge of them, having intimated, that we were badly off for forage, about fifty bundles of grass were immediately sent to us.

Towards evening the numerous concourse of people who assembled round the fort, with all the cavalry that could be mustered, and two elephants capacifoned with scarlet, and carrying howders, announced to me the preparation for an interview with the Rajah. My

L 2 tent

tent having been appointed for the place of meeting, I was apprehensive that so large a body of people would incommode us exceedingly; but was foon relieved from this apprehension by a message from the Rajah, defiring that the interview might take place in a garden, at a small distance from our encampment, called Khau/sbaug. This was a very pleafing circumstance; and foon after the whole cavalcade paffed my tent, the horsemen manauvering and displaying their agility. The noise of drums, horns, and trumpets, was immense. The Rajah was mounted on a very fine elephant, preceded by a small one, which they told me carried the water of the Ganges before him. multitude had no fooner passed, than I followed with about fifty attendants; and upon my arrival at the garden, I found the Rajah and his people had just dismounted. The crowd having opened to admit me, I found him feated in a Chinese chair, with a number of good-looking and well-dreffed men around him. rose up to salute me, which I returned, and seated myself likewise. He appeared to be a handsome young man, about twenty years of age, and was very ele-gantly dressed. He began by putting many pertinent questions to me concerning Hydrabad, the Nizam, his minister, and the principal officers of his empire, with a view to find out if what I had afferted the preceding evening was true. My aufwers convinced him that I was much better acquainted with the Nizam's court, and with the characters of his principal officers, than he was; and particularly with the history of DHOUNSAII, the officer who formerly possessed the Nizam's Purgunnahs of Necrmul and Edilabad; and who had almost ruined the Rajah's father, and family, by pillaging his country, and subverting his interests at Hydrabad.

As I suspected that the beauty of my-horse had been the principal cause of our being brought to Paloonshah, I now took the opportunity of presenting him to the Rajah. His satisfaction at this event was warmly expressed; and he immediately defired I would make myfelf perfectly easy, for I should be at liberty to depart on the ensuing day. This was all I wanted; and the interview ending foon after, a large quantity of cocoanuts, and mangos, were fent me; and I retired, heartily pleased with the prospect of marching on the following morning. But my troubles did not end here; for fome of the Company's Zemeendars, who had been in confinement at Madras, had, about this time, made their escape, and arrived at Paloon/hah. They had so much influence in prepoffessing the Rajah against me, that the whole of the ensuing day was spent in procuring a supply of grain, and guides to direct us across the country into the high road that leads to the Company's frontier.

Our departure was consequently delayed until the morning of the 19th, when MORTIZALLY, and the Vakeel, whose good offices I had, in some measure, been necessitated to purchase, advised me to lose no time in quitting the Rajah's territory; for the people who had lately escaped from Madras, might so far prejudice him against us, as to induce him to throw further obstacles in our way. I could not, however, get away from Paloonshah before eight o clock; for, at my departure, every household servant belonging to the Rajah came out, in expectation of some gratuity. Having at length got rid of their importunities, we fet out, accompanied by MORTIZALLY and the Vakeel, who, when we had proceeded about a mile, delivered over a guide to direct us; and after prefenting me a passport to shew to the Rajah's people at the post of Dommapett, they took their leave.

Our Mahratta guides, who had accompanied us from Ewunpilly, were, during our stay at Palounshah, quite stupisied with fear lest they should be apprehended. We had, however, disguised them in such a manner, that they remained undiscovered; and their fpirits began now to revive. Although our present track was unknown to them, they were of great use to us in managing the Tellinghys whom we procured as guides from the Rajah's people. Having now proceeded about three miles, in a narrow defile between two ranges of hills, the road intersected by ravines, and in some parts strongly stockaded, the hill-fort of Sunkurgherry on a sudden opened to our view. The distance was too great to enable me to judge of the nature of its works; but it had, on the whole, a pretty and romantic appearance. Leaving this place about three miles to the northward of our track, the country continued exceedingly wild, and our road was merely a flight foot-path through thick jungles. few villages that occurred were very poor, and fituated mostly in little spots of ground that had been cleared for cultivation. By noon we had travelled about eleven miles, when we came to a little spring, where finding also some shady trees, I halted, to enable the people, and cattle, to drink and refresh. In about an hour I moved on, resolved to proceed as far as posfible, in hopes of reaching the Company's frontier on the ensuing day. Our road again continued between two ranges of hills, which gradually converged, until we came to the entrance of the strongest pass I ever beheld, called Mooty Gautty, which is likewise fortified. It confifts of a narrow passage, not more than twenty seet in width, and half a mile long, and the rock rifing perpendicularly on each fide. Beyond this the passage diminishes to about ten feet; and a little stream of water, that issues from a rock on the east side, flows through it. After proceeding about a hundred yards through the narrowest part of the defile, we came

to a very steep ascent, which led to the top of the pass. Here I halted to collect my party, and then moved on about two miles surther, to a little rivulet near the village of Jogaram, where we encamped at 5 P. M. having marched a distance of twenty-five miles.

The pass we had come through forms one of the strongest natural defences to Paloonshah, and might be desended by a few resolute men, against any numbers. That of Soondpilly Gundy, which we should have come through, had we continued our journey along the high road, is situated about four coss to the eastward of Mooty Gautty, in the same range of hills.

The little village near which we encamped, confisted only of five poor huts; and the inhabitants, who were as uncouth as any of the human species I ever met with, came out, to the number of about eleven, including women and children, to gaze at us. They were of the Dair cast, and spoke the Tellinghy language; but, by living in this wild and retired part of the country, were totally ignorant of every thing beyond the concerns of their own little hamlet.

MAY 20th. At day-break we moved forward; and as the post of Dommapett was only seven miles distant, it behoved me to pass it with caution. I collected therefore my party into a compact body, and we soon came in sight of it. I found it consisted of a small mud fort; from which about sifty armed men issued, as we approached, and attempted to stop us. I shewed them the Rajah's pass, to which, however, they paid no regard; but being now within five coss of the Company's frontier, I was determined not to be plagued by them; and drawing up the sepons opposite to the party, I told the man in command that I would not be detained. As the high road ran close by this place, the Rajah's guides were of no further

use to us; and as those we had brought from Ewunpilly undertook to lead us, I ordered the followers to move on with their baggage, and soon after followed myself with the sepoys. Some parties stole into the jungle upon our slanks; but finding that we kept a constant watch over them, they did not attempt to fire upon us; and the jungle soon became so thick, that they were no longer able to make their way through it, and we lost sight of them.

I had now only one place more to pass belonging to the Paloonshah Rajah; a small post, called, after him, Ashrufrow Pett, where we arrived about 2 P. M. On our approach, the people all ran into the fort; but as they did not offer to molest us, we soon passed it; and arrived, about four o'clock, at the little village of Dubagooram, situated on the Polaram Rajah's frontier, and subject to the British government.

MAY 21st. WE had marched twenty-seven miles from our last encampment; and the heat, for the last two days, had harraffed us a great deal; but being now arrived within the Company's territory, our troubles were nearly at an end. Our grain was exhausted; and the village being too small to afford us any, I moved about fix miles to the village of Tarpilly, in the Talook of Reddy, where our very urgent wants were supplied. The inhabitants were a good deal furprised at our appearance, not conceiving by what road we could have come into that part of the country; but knowing that, although we were not attached to the Madras prefidency, we were subjects to the same government, they shewed us every attention. In two more easy marches we reached Yertnagoodum, a place in Colonel Pearse's route from Madras to Calcutta, where my geographical labours terminated; and it being a road commonly frequented by the British troops, I found here, on my arrival, every refreshment provided.

MAY 24th. I proceeded to Rajamundry, and having recrossed the Godavery, encamped under the north fide of the fort. Here I had the first grateful fight of an European countenance, which was productive of the most pleasing sensations; for I had now been four months in the society of the natives, through paths the most rugged, and in situations that required their utmost perseverance to surmount. Their patience was frequently called forth, to enable them to subsist on the scanty provision which they were necessitated to carry on their own shoulders in a mountainous wilderness; and their greatest fortitude was fummoned to contend with savage hordes; to whose mercy, had it been our fate to submit, but little chance could have been expected of escaping with our lives. The due fouthing in this journey was little more than eight degrees; but the circuitous windings we were obliged to take, to penetrate through the country, had increased the whole distance to 1125 British The hard fervice which the cattle had endured, had reduced them so low, that a fourth part were now too much exhausted to recover, and perished. Two of my Hirkarrahs had been cut off by the Goands; which, with four followers attached to the sepoys, was the whole loss our party had sustained; and, confidering the difficult nature of the fervice, it was as little as could be expected. Indeed, the utter impossibility of any individual escaping, who might leave the party, had necessitated the utmost precaution, and indefatigable exertions of the whole, for our mutual preservation; and in many situations of difficulty, I was infinitely obliged to them for that zealous support, and attachment, which were productive of so fortunate and successful a termination to our toils.

IV.

An Account of a new Species of DELPHINUS, An Inhabitant of the GANGES.

By DOCTOR ROXBURGH.

INNÆUS, in his arrangement of the animal kingdom, separates the Narval, Whales, Cacholets, and Dolphins, comprising the tribe of cetaceous animals, from the fishes, and places them in the class Mammalia, because they suckle their young. This mode has been by some deemed unnatural; but as it renders the arrangement methodical, easy, and conspicuous, it is now generally followed.* The animals of the cetaceous order of the class Mammalia, to which belongs the species now to be described, are characterized by the following circumstances. They inhabit the ocean, or large rivers. They have no feet. They breathe through a fistulous opening on the upper part of the head. They have two pectoral fins, and an, horizontally flatted tail. They copulate and suckle their young like quadrupeds, which they resemble also in the structure and use of their internal parts.

The four genera composing this order, are distinguished chiefly by the teeth. That to which this new species belongs, is denominated Delphinus; the essential character of the species thereof is, they are surnished with bony teeth in each jaw; whereas the other three genera have eather no teeth, or have them in one jaw only. Galelin's last edition of the Systema Naturæ of Linnæun, mentions only sour distinct species, viz. Phocena.

^{*} Pennant, in his British Zoology, makes a different arrangement; by which he places the Cote amongst the fishes, distributing the whole into three grand divisions. 1st, Cetaceous-fish. 2d, Cardilaginous-fish. And 3d, Bony-fish. But in the subdivision of this last grand class, he follows Linnar.

AN ACCOUNT OF A NEW SPECIES OF DELPHINUS. 171

cana, (a;) Delphis, (b;) Orca, (c;) and Leucas, (d;) to which I now add a fifth, viz.

DELPINUS GANGETICUS,

THE body of which is nearly of a lanceolate shape, and almost round; the jaws, long and slender, with fixty teeth in each. No dorsal fin.

Soosoo is the name it is known by amongst the Bengalese about Calcutta.

THEY are found in great numbers in the Ganges, even so far up as it is navigable, but seem to delight most in the slow-moving labyrinth of rivers, and creeks, which intersect the delta of that river to the South, S. E. and East, of Calcutta.

DESCRIPTION.

THE Body (including the head) is of an ovate-lanceolate shape; by which term I mean rather. long and slender, thickest about the fore part. from thence tapering to the tail; from the anus forward, nearly round.* The skin is soft, smooth, and of a shining pearl grey, or leadcolour, when dry; with here and there lighter coloured spots, or clouds, particularly when old: but when the animal is alive, and as we then see it wet when it rises to breathe, it appears much darker. The length of the individual (a young little more than half grown male) from which this description is taken, fix and a half feet; and at the thickest part, which is nearly about, or rather behind, the pectoral fins, three in circumference: the weight one hundred and twenty pounds.

M 2 HEAD

horizontal considerably.

 ⁽a) The Porpoise.
 (b) The Dolphin.
 (c) The Grampus.
 (d) The Beluga, or White Fish of the Russians.
 But behind that aperture, the vertical diameter exceeds the

172 AN ACCOUNT OF A NEW SPECIES OF DELPHINUS.

- HEAD obtuse, somewhat carinated on the upper and anterior part, suddenly tapering to a long, slender, but strong beak, or mouth; (not unlike that of some birds.) The jaws are strong, though slender; nearly equal, and almost straight. Taken singly, they are sub-cylindrical, and without lips, or any other substance to hide the teeth. Their length is nearly about a fixth part of the length of the whole animal, beak and tail included.
- TEETH, in both jaws one hundred and twenty; of which there are thirty in each fide of each jaw; those before are longer, sharper, more approximated, and somewhat incurved; they become gradually smaller, shorter, and more remote, as they approach the throat; and are fitted to lock into those of the opposite jaw when the mouth is shut.
- Tongue large, oval, firmly attached in its whole length to the integuments which connect the posterior surcated part of the lower jaw.
- Eyes exceedingly minute, being only about a line in diameter, of a bright, shining, blackish colour; situate nearly two inches above the posterior angles of the mouth; and sunk pretty deep in their small round orbits.
- FISTULA, or spout-hole, is situate on the upper part or crown of the head; it is linear, and somewhat bent like the letter f.
- EARS external, two small, semilunar apertures, considerably behind, and a little above the eyes.
- Fins pectoral, of an oblique fan-shape, about nine inches long, and seven broad at the posterior margin, which is scolloped: beneath their skin may be felt the bones, extending to the angles of

2 the

the scolloped margin. Instead of a dorsal-fin, there is only a projecting angle about half way between the fistula and tail.

TAIL horizontal, (as in the rest of the order Cele,) crescent-shaped; expands, at the extreme points, sourteen inches. Depth of the concave side of the crescent about two inches: besides, there is a fissure in the center, which penetrates about an inch and a half farther into the tail.

GENITAL ORGANS of the Male. The aperture is about twelve inches behind the infertion of the pectoral fins, and about ten before the anus. The member itself, in its flaccid state, is about ten inches long, and then entirely hid in the belly. It is composed of two portions, having their limits marked by two large projecting lobes, affixed to the under side: these are of a firm liver-like texture and colour. The posterior portion is persectly cylindric, and about as thick as a man's singer; the anterior part is much smaller, and tapers to a fine point; they are nearly of equal-lengths; that is, about five inches each.

THE female has not yet been examined.

When in pursuit of the fish on which it feeds, it moves with great velocity, and uncommon activity; but at all other times, so far as I have been able to observe, or learn, the motions of this animal are slow and heavy, often rising to the surface of the water to breathe.

BETWEEN the skin and the sless is a coat of pale yellowish-coloured fat, more or less thick, according to the state of the animal. This the Hindoos set a high value on, as an external medicine, of great efficacy for removing pains of various kinds. The sless

174 AN ACCOUNT OF A NEW SPECIES OF DELPHINUS.

is like the lean of beef in colour, nor has it any difagreeable smell; yet, so far as I can learn, the natives never eat it.

In the stomach were found only some grains of paddy, (rice in the husk,) a few minute fragments of shells, and many living active Ascarides.* Notwithstanding the contents of the stomach of this individual, there is no doubt of the animal being piscivorous.

These (Ascaris Delphini they may be called) are about two inches long, of a pale, almost white colour, tapering little, but equally towards each end: the mouth is situate in the center of three tubercles; over the apus is a small pointed hornlet on the obtuse tail of the animal.

v.

Translation of one of the Inscriptions on the Pillar

ΛT

DEHLEE, called the Lat of FEEROZ SHAH.

BY HENRY COLEBROOKE, Efq.

WITH INTRODUCTORY REMARKS BY MR. HARINGTON.

HAVE the pleasure of presenting to the Society a Book of Drawings and Inscriptions prepared under the inspection of their late member, Captain JAMES HOARE, and intended by him (I have reason to believe) for the use of the Society.

Two of the drawings represent elevations, taken on the spot, of the stone building near Dehlee, called the Shikargah, or hunting place, of FEEROZ SHAH: with the pillar in the center, and bove the fummit of it, commonly known by the defignation of FEEROZ Shan's Lat; and described, with an outline of the building and pillar, in the 21st paper of the 1st Vol. of the Society's Transactions. The copy of the inscriptions on this pillar, which was received by our revered President and Founder from Colonel POLIER. enabled him to exhibit a translation of one of them, as accurate as the imperfect state of the transcript would admit; but on comparing it with a more perfect copy made by Captain HOARE, it was found in several parts desective and inaccurate; and the date. instead of being 123 of the ara of Vicramaditya, or A. D. 67, as appeared from the former copy, was clearly ascertained, from the present, to be 1220 of the above zera, or A. D. 1164. An accurate translation of this inscription has therefore been furnished by Mr. HENRY COLEBROOKE, (who has distinguished himself as a Sanscrit scholar by his version of the Hindoo Law Digest, compiled under the superintendence

perintendence of Sir WILLIAM JONES,) and is now ful mitted to the Society, with the original Sanscrit in Roman letters.

OF the five other inscriptions contained in the accompanying book, and taken from the same pillar, but in a different character, no translation has been yet procurable. The deposit of them among the Society's papers, and, if they think proper, the publication of an engraving of them in their Transactions, may lead to a future explication of them; which must be also facilitated by Captain Hoare's collection of the characters.

The same characters appear in the inscription on the pillar at Allahabad, a specimen of which, with a modern Arabick and Persian inscription in the reign of Jehangeer, and a drawing of the pillar, are also contained in the accompanying Book. I have not been able to procure any information respecting this pillar, and understand from Moonshee Mohummud Morad, who accompanied Captain Hoare, that his inquiries at Allahabad were equally unsuccessful.

THE FEEROZ SHAH, whose name is now attached to the Dehlee pillar, (though it must have been erected as some Hindoo monument at a much earlier period,) appears, from Ferishtuh's History, to have reigned at Dehlee between the years 1351 and 1388; in the last of which he died at the age of ninety; and Ferishtuh, in the words of his translator, Lieutenant Colonel Dow, gives him the following character:

"Though no great warrior in the field, he was, by his excellent qualities, well calculated for a reign of peace. His severity to the inhabitants of Cumaoon, for the assassing of the Governor of Samana, is a great blot in his reputation. But to this he, perhaps, was prompted by a religious zeal and enthusiasm; so the persons murdered, were Seids, or

descendants of the prophet. He reigned thirtyeight years and nine months, and lest many memorials of his magnificence in the land. He built
fifty great sluices, forty mosques, thirty schools,
twenty caravansaries, an hundred palaces, five
hospitals, an hundred tombs, ten baths, ten spires,
one hundred and fifty wells, one hundred bridges;
and the pleasure gardens he made were without
number."*

THE author of the Huft Akleem, MOHUMMUD AMEEN RAZEE, who wrote his history of the world (or, as the title of his book imports, of the Seven Climes, into which the Mahommedans divide the universe) in the reign of Akbura corroborates the above character of FEEROZ SHAH, and adds the fo!lowing passage, translated verbatim from his history. " Among the places built by this King (FEERÖZ "Shah) is a hunting place, which the populace call " the Lat of FEEROZ SHAH. It is a house of three 66 stories, in the centre of which has been erected a " pillar of red stone, of one piece, and tapering up-"wards. The visiole part of the shaft is, by mea-" furement, twenty-feven Zirras; and it is faid, that 66 one-third only is visible; the remaining two-thirds " being buried in the earth. In this case, the total " length must be eighty-one Zirras; and it is five "Zirras in circumference. Round it have been en-66 graved literal characters, which the most intelli-66 gent of all religions have been unable to explain. 66 Report fays, this pillar is a monument of renown " to the Rajules, (or Hindoo Princes,) and that FEEROZ SHAH fet it up within his hunting place. But on this head there are various traditions. " which it would be tedious to relate."

THE exact length of the Zirra, referred to in the above description, is uncertain. But there can be no doubt that the height of the pillar, now visible Vol. VII.

^{*} Dow's History of Hindustan, Vol. I. page 936.

above the building, is thirty-seven seet; and that its circumserence, where it joins the terrace, is ten seet four inches. These dimensions I have from Moonshee Mohummud Morad, who himself measured the pillar for Captain Hoare in July, 1797; and who adds, that, as far as it could be seen, (which, from the ruinous state of the building, it cannot be, at present, below the upper terrace,) it is certainly, as described in the Hust Akleem, a single stone, of reddish colour, as represented in the drawing. One of Captain Hoare's drawings surther represents the plans of the three stories of the Shikar-gah; and his Moonshee informs me, the current opinion is, that they were used partly for a menagery, and partly for an aviary, which the plans appear to consirm.

PERHAPS the same misguided religious zeal which prompted his severity towards the inhabitants of Cumaoon, may have impelled him to erect a mansion for birds and beasts, round a venerable relict of Hindoo antiquity; the age of which cannot, I conceive, be determined by the date of the inscription now communicated to the Society, as the character of it is modern, and altogether different from the

older inscriptions not yet explained.

J. H. HARINGTON.

SANSCRIT INSCRIPTION, IN ROMAN CHARACTERS.

samvat 1220 vaisác'ha sudí 15 sácambharí bhúpati śrímad vélla dévátmaja śrímad vísala dévasya.

ávind'hyád áhimádrér virachita vijayas tírt'ha yátrá prasangád udgrívéshu praharta nripatishu vinamat cand'haréshu prasannah áryávertam yat'hárt'ham punar api critaván mléchch'ha vichch'hédanábhir dévah śácambharíndró jagati vijayaté vísalah cshón'ipálah.

brúté samprati báhujáta tilacah sácambharí bhúpatih srímad vigraha rája ésha vijayí santánaján átmanah.

asmábhih caradam vyad'háyi himavad vind'hyántarálam bhuvah sésha swícaran'áya mástu bhavatám udyóga súnyam manah.

ambhó náma ripu priyá nayanayóh pratyart'hi dantántaré pratyacshán'i trĭn'áni vaibhava milat cáshtám yasás távacam

márgó lóca virudd'ha éva vijanah sunyam manó vidwishám srímad vigraha rájadéva bhavatah

prapté prayán'ótsavé

lîlá mandira śódaréshu swántéshu vámabhruvám satrún'án nanu vigraha cshitipáté nyáyyás cha vásas tava sancá vá purushóttamasya bhavató násty éva várán nid'hér nirmat'hyápahrita śriyah cimu bhaván cródé na nidráyitah.

VERBAL TRANSLATION.

In the year 1220, on the 15th day of the bright half of the month Vaisac'h, [this monument] of the fortunate Visala De'va, son of the fortunate Ve'lla

De'va, (1) King of S'ácambharí,

As far as Vind hya, (2) as far as Himádri, (2) having achieved conquest in the course of travelling to holy places; resentful to haughty Kings, and indulgent to those whose necks are humbled; making A'ryáverta (2) once more what its name signifies, by causing the barbarians to be exterminated; Vísala Deya, supreme ruler of S'ácambharí, (3,) and sovereign of the earth, is victorious in the world.

This conqueror, the fortunate Vigraha R'Aja, (4,) King of S'ácambharí, most eminent of the tribe which sprang from the arms (5) [of Brahma',] now addresses his own descendants: "By us the region of the earth between Himavat (2) and Vind'hya (2) has been made tributary; let not your minds be void of exertion to subdue the remainder."

Tears are evident in the eyes of thy enemy's confort: blades of grass are perceived between thy adversary's teeth; (6) thy fame is predominant throughout

(1) Colonel Polific's transcript exhibited Amilia; the present

copy may be read either Ave'LLA, or Ve'LLA.

(2) The Vind'hya hills form the range which passes through the provinces of Bahár, Benáres, &c. Himádri, the Mountains of Snow, (called Himavat in the next verse,) is the Imaus and Emodus of ancient geographers. A'ryáverta signifies the Land of Virtue; or "inhabited by respectable Men." See Menu, Ch. 2. v. 22.

(3) I have not been able to ascertain the situation of S'acambhari.

(4) Whether Vigrama Raja, and Visala De'va, be names of the same person, or of different princes, it is impossible to determine from the tenor of the inscription, without other information.

(5) The transcript of the inscription exhibits Vákamána Tilacah, as it was also read in the former fac simile. Servóne Trive'da advises me to read it Báhnjáta Tilacah, and I accede to his emendation.

(ii) This alludes to the Indian custom of hiting a blade of grass as a token of submission, and of asking quarter,

throughout space; the minds of thy soes are void [of hope;] their route is the desert where men are hindered from passing, O Vigraha Ra'ja De'ya, in the jubilee occasioned by thy march.

May thy abode, O VIGRAHA, fovereign of the earth, be fixed, as in reason it ought, in the bosoms (akin to the mansion of dalliance) of the women with beautiful eye-brows, who were married to thy enemies. There is no doubt of thy being the highest of embodied souls. (7) Didst thou not sleep in the lap of S'Rí, whom thou didst seize from the ocean, having churned it? (8)

In the year from the fortunate Vicra'maditha 1220, (9,) on Thursday, the 15th day of the bright half of the month Vaisach, this was written in the presence of (10) by S'R'IPATI, the son of Máhava, a Cáyastha of a family in Gaud'a: at this time the sommate Lacshana' Pa'la, a Rajaputra, is prime minister.

S'IVA the terrible, and the universal monarch.

N 3

THERE

⁽⁷⁾ Stavont, explains this very obscure passage otherwise; "There is (i. e. there should be) no doubt, or hesitation, in the mind of thee, who art the highest of embodied souls." (Purusháttama.)

⁽⁸⁾ Purushortama, is a title of Visus't. With reference to this term, the author of the inscription asks, "Art thou not Visus't himself? Art thou not be who slept in the arms of Lacsum?" The legend of the churung of the ocean is well known.

⁽⁹⁾ In the present copy the date is very distinct; and proves to be 1220; not 123, as was suspected by Sir William Jones.

⁽¹⁰⁾ This part of the inscription is not legible.

There are on the same page, some short inscriptions, which I cannot decypher. One of them, however, is partly legible, and appears to be in the Hindustani language. It contains the name of Sulta'n Ibr'ahim, and wishes him a long life.

ACCOUNT of the Kookies, or Lunctas.

By JOHN MACRAE, Esq.

Communicated by J. H. HARINGTON, Esq.

R. HARINGTON has the pleasure of laying be fore the Society, an account of the Kookies, or Cúclis, respecting whom a paper communicated in Persian by Mr. RAWLINS, was translated by SIR WILLIAM JONES, and printed in the second Volume of the Researches.

The paper now communicated, was written by Mr. John Macrae, Surgeon in the Honourable Company's Service at Chittagong; and from information given to him by a native of Runganeeah, who had long resided among the Cúcis as their captive. It was originally intended as a private communication only; but conceiving that the description of manners contained in it, of a people little known, on the frontier of the British territory, would prove acceptable to the Society, the author was solicited to permit its being read to them; and they will probably consider it sufficiently interesting for publication in their Researches.

January 24th, 1799.

THE Kookies are a race of people that live among the mountains to the north-east of the Chittagong province, at a greater distance than the Choomeas from the inhabitants of the plains; to whom, therefore, they are little known, and with whom they very rarely have any intercourse, except when they occasionally visit the hauts, or markets, on the borders of the jungles in the Runganeeah and Aurungabad districts, to purchase salt, dried sish, and tobacco.

THE

The following account of them was taken from a native of the Runganeeah district, who, when a boy, was carried away, in one of their predatory excursions, and, after a captivity of twenty years,

found means to return to his family.

The Kookies, or Lunctas, (as they are also called,) are the least civilized of any of the people we as yet know among these mountains: like all mountaineers, they are of an active, muscular make, but not tall: they are stouter, and of a darker complexion, than the Choomeeas,* and, like them, have the peculiar features of all the natives of the eastern parts of Asia, namely, the stat nose, small eye, and broad round face.

THE tradition of the Kookies respecting their origin, is, that they, and the Mugs, are the offspring of the same progenitor, who had two sons, by different mothers. The Mugs, they say, are the descendants of the eldest, and the Kookies of the youngest, son. The mother of the youngest having died during his infancy, he was neglected by his step-mother, who, while she cloathed her own son, allowed him to go naked: and this partial distinction being still ob-ferved, as he grew up, he went by the name of Luntta, or the naked. Upon the death of their father, a quarrel arose between the brothers, which induced the Luncta to betake himself to the hills, and there pass the remainder of his days. His descendants have continued there ever since, and still go by the name of Lunctas; though, properly speaking, the term is only applicable to the male part of them, as the females wear a short apron before, made of cloth of their own manufacture, and which falls down from the loins to the middle of the thigh: and both fexes occasionally throw a loose facet

^{*} Choomeeas are the inhabitants of the first range of hills bordering on the plains to the north and east of the province of Chittagong, and are tributary to the Honourable Company; their villages are called Chooms.

fleet of cloth over their bodies, to defend them from the cold.

This tradition of their origin receives much support from the great similarity of the Mug and Kookie languages, many words of which are exactly the same; and their general resemblance is such, that a Mug and Kookie can make themselves understood to each other.

THE Kookies are all hunters and warriors, and are divided into a number of distinct tribes, totally independent of each other; though all of them acknowledge, more or less, the authority of three different Rajalis, named Tha'ndon, Mankene, and Halcha. to whom the various tribes are attached, but whose power over them is very limited, except in that tribe with which the Rajah lives, where he is absolute. The rajahships are hereditary; and the Rajahs, by way of distinction, wear a small slip of black cloth round their loins; and, as a farther mark of superior rank, they have their hair brought forward, and tied in a bunch, so as to overshade the forehead, while the rest of the Kookies have theirs hanging loofe over the shoulders. The semales also of the Rajah's family, wear an apron of black cloth, with a red border, which falls down to the knee; a colour and faflion prohibited to the rest of the sex, black being the royal colour.

THE Rajahs receive a tribute in kind from the tribes, to support their dignity; and in cases of general danger, they can summon all the warriors to arms; but each tribe is under the immediate command of its own particular chief, whose word is a law in peace and war, and who has the power of life and death in his tribe. The chiestainship is not hereditary, like the rajahship, but elective; though, in general, the nearest relation of the last chief succeeds him, if deemed by the tribe a proper person for the trust; and the Rajah cannot remove a chief once elected, should he disapprove of him.

THE

THE Kookies are armed with bows and arrows, spears, clubs, and daws, an instrument in common use among the natives of this province, as a hand hatchet, and exactly resembling the knife of the Nyars on the Malabar Coall, which is a most destructive weapon in close combat. They use shields, made of the hide of the Gyal, (a species of cow peculiar to their hills;) and the infide of their shields they ornament with small pendulous plates of brass, which make a tingling noise, as the warriors toss about their arms, either in the fight or in the dance. They also wear round their necks large strings, of a particular kind of shell found in their hills: about their loins, and on their thighs, immediately above the knee, they tie 'large bunches of long goat's hair, of a red colour; and on their arms they have broad rings of ivory, in order to make them appear the more terrific to their enemies.

THE Kookies choose the steepest and most inaccesfible hills to build their villages upon, which, from being thus fituated, are called Parahs, or, in the Kookie language, K'hooah. Every Parah confifts of a tribe, and has feldom sewer than four or five hundred inhabitants, and sometimes contains one or two thousand. Towards our frontiers, however, where there is little apprehension of danger, a tribe frequently separates into several small parties, which form fo many different Parahs on the adjoining hills, as may best suit their convenience. To give further fecurity to the Parahs, in addition to their naturally strong situation, the Kookies surround them with a thick bamboo pallisade; and the passages leading into them, of which there are commonly four or five in different quarters, they strictly guard, day and night, especially if there is any suspicion of danger; but whether there is, or is not, they are at all times extremely jealous of admitting strangers within the Parah. They build their houses as close to each other as possible, and make them spacious enough to accommodate

commodate four or five families in every house. They construct them after the manner of the Choomeeas and Mugs, that is, on platforms or stages of bamboo. raised about six feet from the ground, and enter them by ladders, or, more frequently, by a fingle stick, with notches cut in it to receive the foot: underneath the stages they keep their domestic animals. All these precautions of defence strongly indicate the constant state of alarm in which they live, not only from the quarrels of the Rajahs with each other, but also from the hostile feuds of the different tribes, not excepting those who are attached to the same Rajah. Depredations on each other's property, and the not giving up of fuch refugees as may fly from one Parah to another, are the most frequent causes of quarrel, when they carry on a most destructive petty warfare, in which the several tribes are more or less involved, according as the principals are more or less connected among them. On these occasions, when an enterprise is not of sufficient importance to induce the chief to head all the warriors of the Parah. he always felects a warrior, of approved valour and address, to lead the party to be detached.

THEY always endeavour to furprise their enemy, in preference to engaging him in open combat, however confident of superiority they may be. With that view, when on any hostile excursion, they never kindle a fire, but carry with them a sufficiency of ready-dressed provisions, to serve during the probable term of their absence: they march in the night, proceeding with the greatest expedition, and obscrving the most profound silence: when day overtakes them, they halt, and lie concealed in a kind of hammock, which they fasten among the branches of the loftiest trees, so that they cannot be perceived by any person passing underneath. From this circumstance of ambuscade, the idea has originated of their living in trees instead of houses. When they have, in this manner.

manner, approached their enemy unperceived, they generally make their attack about the dawn, and commence it with a great shout, and striking of their spears against their shields. If they are successful in their onset, they seldom spare either age or sex; at times, however, they make captives of the children, and often adopt them into their families, when they have none of their own; and the only slaves among them are the captives thus taken.

The heads of the slain they carry in great triumph to their Parah, where the warriors are met, on their arrival, by men, women, and children, with much rejoicing; and they have the peculiar privilege of killing any animal in the place they may choose, (not excepting the chief's,) to be given as a scalt in celebration of their victory: but, should the party have been unsuccessful, instead of being thus met with every demonstration of joy, and led into the Parah amidst the exultations of its friends, it enters in the greatest silence, and as privately as possible; and all the warriors composing it remain in disgrace, until such time as they retrieve their characters, either jointly or individually, by some act of valour.

The Kookies are often attacked by the Banjoogees, who, though not so numerous a race of people, yet, from being all united under one Rajah, always prevail, and exact an annual tribute of salt from the two Kookie Rajahs, Thandon and Mankene, who, from having a greater intercourse with the Choomeeas, receive a larger supply of this article from the plains below, than their more remote neighbours. Salt is in the highest estimation among them all: whenever they send any message of consequence to each other, they always put in the hand of the bearer of it a small quantity of salt, to be delivered with the message, as expressive of its importance. Next to personal valour, the accomplishment most esteemed in a warrior, is superior address in stealing; and if a thief

can convey undiscovered to his own house, his neighbour's property, it cannot afterwards be claimed: nor, if detected in the act, is he otherwise punished, than by exposure to the ridicule of the Parah, and being obliged to restore what he may have laid hold of.

This must tend to encourage the practice of thieving, which, no doubt, is considered in such high estimation, because the same sagacity and address necessary to give success to the thies, qualifies the warrior, in an eminent degree, to steal unperceived upon and surprise his enemy, and thus ensures him victory. So thought the ancient warriors of Sparta, who, like the Kookies of the present day, held in estimation the man who could steal with superior expertness.

THE Kookies, like all favage people, are of a most vindictive disposition; blood must always be shed for blood. If a tiger even kills any of them near a Parah, the whole tribe is up in arms, and goes in pursuit of the animal; when, if he is killed, the family of the deccased gives a scall of his sless, in revenge of his having killed their relation: And should the tribe fail to destroy the tiger, in this first general pursuit of him, the family of the deceased must still continue the chace; for, until they have killed either this or fome other tiger, and have given a fealt of his flelli, they are in dilgrace in the Parah, and not affociated with by the 1cst of the inhabitants. In like manner, if a tiger destroys one of a hunting party, or of a party of warriors on an hostile excursion, neither the one nor the other (whatever their fuccess may have been) can return to the Parah, without being difgraced, unless they kill the tiger. A more firthing instance still of this revengeful spirit of retaliation is, that, if a man should happen to be killed by an accidental fall from a tree, all his relations affemble, and cut it down; and however large it may be, they reduce it to chip,

chips, which they scatter in the winds, for having, asthey say, been the cause of the death of their brother. They employ much of their time in the chace, and having no prejudice of cast (or sect) to restrain them in the choice of their game, no animal comes amiss to them. An elephant is an immense prize for a whole Parah. They do not remove their Parahs fo frequently as the Choomeeas do their Chooms: the Choomeeas feldom remain longer than two years on the fame spot, whereas the Kookies are usually four or five; and when they migrate, they burn their Parah, lest the Gyals should return to it, as they are frequently known to do if the huts are left standing. The Kookies never go to a greater distance from their old ground than a journey of twelve hours, unless compelled to proceed farther, from some particular cause, fuch as the fear of an enemy, or the want of a proper spot to fix upon.

THEIR great object in selecting a place to settle on, is natural strength of situation, with a sufficiency of good ground near the Parah on which to rear the different grains, roots, and vegetables, they wish to cultivate. They cultivate the ground as the Choomeeas do; and in this, as in every other domestic occupation, the semale sex bears the weight of the labour, and no rank exempts them from it: the wife of the chief, and the wife of his vassal, work alike in the same field.

A PROPER spot being sound on the declivity of some hill contiguous to the Parah, the men cut down the jungle upon it in the month of March, and allow it to remain there until sufficiently decayed to burn freely, when they set it on fire, and thus at once perform the double purpose of clearing away the rubbish, and of manuring the ground with its ashes. The women now dig small holes, at certain distances, in the spot so cleared, and into each hole they throw a handful of different seeds they intend to rear, which are all jumbled

jumbled together in a basket slung over the shoulder: the feeds are then covered with earth, and left to their fate; when, in due time, according to their various natures, the plants spring up, ripen, and are reaped in succession: rice, Indian corn, and the mustard plant, are thus feen in the same field. Of rice they have a great variety, and two or three kinds peculiar to the hills: one of these, the Chereh, is uncommonly fine, and has the peculiar quality of affecting, as a laxative, persons not in the habit of eating it. The other forts are called Beh, Deengkroo, Roomkee, Sepooce, Bangfoo, and Boulteh; but it is not exactly afcertained, whether or not these are different species of grain, or the same kind, receiving different names from the season of reaping it. The Beh is reaped in July, the Chereh in August, the Deengkroo in September, the Roomkee in October; and in November, the Seponee, Bangfoo, and Boulteh. They have another finall grain, called Cutchoo; and a variety of beans, as the Karafs, Burguddee, and Toorace. The feed of the mustard plant they eat, but express.no oil from it. Of the gourd and cucumber plants they have feveral kinds: and tumerick, yams, and tobacco, they cultivate; but the latter they have in fmall quantity, though very fond of it.

In their forests they have abundance of honey, but are ignorant of the method of separating it from the wax of the comb.

Their domestic animals are Gyals, Goats, Hogs, Dogs, and Fowls; and of these the Gyal is by much the most valued, both on account of its milk, and its sless. As already mentioned, it is a species of cow, peculiar to these hills, where it is met in its wild state: in shape it resembles the heavy strong make of the wild buffalo, but has much shorter horns: its colour is brown, acquiring a lighter shade towards the belly, which, as well as the legs, is often white: its milk is nearly as rich as the

cieam

cream of common cow milk; and its flesh constitutes the first luxury at a Kookie feast, and, except on very extraordinary occasions, is never given. goats are larger, and more hairy, than those of the plains. In the other animals there is nothing peculiar. Notwithstanding that the Kookies have such a number of different articles of food, yet a scarcity of provisions frequently prevails among the tribes, when those upon a friendly footing always assist each other: and whatever may have been thus amicably given, is rigidly repaid, in more favourable times, by the tribe which received it. A fearcity may be occasioned either by the irregularity of the feafon, in a failure or excess of the periodical rains; or else by the incursions of enemies, who never fail to lay waste and destroy, if they can, every thing to be found without the Parah. And the Parah itself, in a fatally unguarded hour, is often destroyed also, when the helpless furvivors, if any, of such a calamity, are thrown upon the humanity of their neighbouring friends.

In the Parahs they cook their victuals in earthen pots of their own manufacture, resembling those of the Bengalees, but much stronger and thicker in fubflance. The hunter, however, in his excurtions through the forests, boils his food in a particular kind of hollow bamboo. From the ashes of a different species of the same plant, he extracts a substitute for falt, to eat with his victuals; and with equal fimplicity and readiness, he kindles his fire, by the friction of one piece of dried bamboo upon another. The Kookies have but one wife: they may, however, keep as many concubines as they pleafe. Adultery may be punished with instant death by either of the injured parties, if the guilty are caught by them in the fact; it may otherwise be compromised by a fine of Gyals, as the chief may determine. The frailty of a concubine is always compromised in this way, without difgrace to the parties. Fornication

tion is punished in no other manner, than by obliging the parties to marry, unless the man may have used violence, in which case he is punished, generally, with death, either by the chief, or by the relations of the injured female. Marriage is never consummated among them before the age of puberty. When a young man has fixed his affections upon a young woman, either of his own or of some neighbouring Parah, his father visits her father, and demands her in marriage for his fon. Her father, on this, inquires what are the merits of the young man to entitle him to her favour, and how many he can afford to entertain at the wedding feast; to which the father of the young man replies, that his fon is a brave warrior, a good hunter, and an expert thief; for that he can produce fo many heads of the enemies he has slain, and of the game he has killed; that in his house are such and fuch stolen goods, and that he can feast so many (mentioning the number) at his marriage. On hearing this, the father of the girl either goes himself, or sends some confidential friend to ascertain the facts. which, if he finds to be as stated, he consents to the marriage; and it is celebrated by a feast, given by him to the bridegroom, and all their mutual friends. At night the bride is led by her husband from her father's house to his own, where he next day entertains the company of the preceding day, which is more or less numerous, according to the connections and circumstances of the parties. When a chief marries, the whole Parah is entertained by him; and should his bride be from another Parah, as often happens, the two Parahs fealt and carouse with each other alternately. At these, and all their sestivals. there is much drinking of a liquor made of rice, called Deengkroo, of which the Kookies are very fond. There are two kinds of this liquor; the one, pure and limpid; and the other of a red colour, from an infusion of the leaf of a particular tree called Bangmullah, Vot. VII.

mullah, which renders it highly intoxicating. They indulge very freely in the use of both kinds, except when they go on hostile excursions: they then rigidly abstain from them. In January and February they usually marry; because they have provisions in the greatest plenty, and it is their most idle time.

WHEN any person dies in a Parah, the corpse is conveyed by the relations of the deceafed, and depofited upon a stage raised under a shed erected for the purpose at some distance from the dwelling house. While it remains there, it is carefully guarded, day and night, from the depredations of dogs and birds, by some one of the samily; and a regular supply of food and drink is daily brought, and laid before it. Should more than one casualty occur in a family, the fame ceremony is observed with respect to each corpse; and at whatever time of the year persons may happen to die in the Parah, all the bodies must be kept in this manner until the 11th of April, called by the Bengalees, Beeffco. On that day all the relations of the deceased assemble, and convey their remains from the sheds to different funeral piles paepared for them on a particular spot without the Parah, where they are burnt; as are also the several sheds under which the bodies had lain from the period of their decease. After this melancholy ceremony is over, the whole party repairs to the house of him in whose family the first casualty occurred in that year, and partakes of an entertainment given by him in honour of the dead. On the following day a fimilar feast is given by him in whose family the next casualty of the season had happened; and thus the fealt goes round in succession, until one is given for each of the dead.

In this pious preservation of the dead till a certain day in the year, when only the last solemn funeral rites

fites can be performed to their remains, there is a fingular coincidence in the practice of the Kookies with that of some of the tribes of the North American Indians, as related in Bertram's Travels; and it must appear a curious sact, that in so very particular an instance, there should be this similitude in the customs of two savage people placed in such opposite parts of the world, where the climate, and other peculiar local circumstances, are so totally different.

THE Kookies have an idea of a future state, where they are rewarded or punished according to their merits in this world. They conceive that nothing is more pleasing to the Deity, or more certainly ensures future happiness, than destroying a number of their enemies. The Supreme Being they conceive to be omnipotent, and the creator of the world, and all that it contains. The term in their language for the Supreme Being, is KHOGEIN POOTTEEANG. also worship an inferior Deity, under the name of SHEEM SAUK, to whom they address their prayers as a mediator with the Supreme Being, and as more immediately interesting himself in the concerns of individuals. To the Supreme Being they offer in facrifice a Gyal, as being their melt valued animal; while to Sheem Sauk they facrifice a goat only. In every Parah, they have a rudely-formed figure of wood of the human shape, representing SHEEN SAUK; it is generally placed under a tree, and to it they offer up their prayers before they fet out on any excursion or enterprise, as the Deity that controuls and directs their actions and destiny. Whenever, therefore, they return successful, whether from the chace, or the attack of an enemy, they religiously place before Sheem Sauk all the heads of the flain, or of their game killed, as expressive of their devotion, and to record their exploits. Each warrior has his own par-O 2 ticulat

ticular pile of heads, and according to the number is confifts of, his character as a hunter and warrior is established in the tribe. These piles are sacred; and no man dares attempt to filch away his neighbours' fame, by stealing from them to add to his own. They likewise worship the moon, as conceiving it to influence their fortunes in some degree. And in every house there is a particular post consecrated to the Deity, before which they always place a certain portion of whatever food they are about to eat. In the month of January they have a folemn facrifice and festival in honour of the Deity, when the inhabitants of several neighbouring Parahs (if on friendly terms) often unite, and kill Gyals, and all kinds of animals, on which they fealt, and dance and drink together for feveral days. They have no professed ministers of religion, but each adores the Deity in such manner as he thinks proper. They have no emblem, as of SHEEM SAUK, to represent the Supreme Being.

The Kookies having no coins among them, but fuch as find their way from the plains; for the few necessaries they want, they barter their produce with the Cheomeeas, who are the medium of commerce; and on these occasions the Cheomeeas are never allowed to enter their Parahs, but are obliged to remain at a certain distance, whither the articles of exchange are brought: such is their extreme jealousy of admitting any strangers within their Parahs, as already noticed. They frequently visit a Mugchief, commonly known by the name of the Comlahpore Rajah, who is settled among the hills in the southern parts of this district, and to whom they make themselves understood from the similarity of language. They can give no account of the country to the eastward of their hills; but they have a tradition that it is an open level country, like the

plain of Chittagong. The Kookies are a great terror. to the Bengalees settled on the borders of the jungles in the Runganeeah and Aurungabad districts; and a particular annoyance to the wood-cutters, whose business leads them far into the forests, and whom they have frequently surprised, and cut off. Whenever an unfortunate event of this nature has occurred, it has always been remarked, that the Kookies carry nothing away from the slain but their heads, and such falt as they may have with them. They stand so greatly in awe of fire-arms, that the report of a fingle musket will put a whole party to flight; on this account the Rajah of the Choomeeas, who is so immediately in their neighbourhood, keeps in his service a number of Pehluwans, or men with fire-arms; but, notwithstanding, his people have been obliged to abandon several places, by the depredations committed by the Kookies. Though the Rajah is upon terms of friendship with some of the tribes, yet, in the course of their migrations, these are succeded by others that he knows nothing of, and of whose approach even he is ignorant until his people are cut off; he is, therefore, under the necessity of being constantly prepared to repel these attacks, which, from being always made in the night, it is impossible to guard against.

THE following is a specimen of the Kookie lan-

guage:

Meepa,		•		Man.
Nochaoo,		•		Woman.
Naco,	•	•	•	A Child.
Meepa Na	oot'he.		•	A male Child.
Noonaoot'h		•	A female Child.	
P'ha,	•	•	• •	Father.
Noo.	•			Mother.
Chopooce,			•	Brother.
Charnoo,			•	Sifter.
P hoo,	•			Grandfather.
Pilice	a			Grandmother.
	-	O_2		THEIR

THEIR numbers are reckoned thus:

Katka,	•	•	•	One.
Neeka,	•	•	•	Two.
Toomka,	•	•	•	Three.
Leeka,	•			Four.
Rungākā,	•	•	•	Five.
Rooka,				Six.
Sereeka,	•			Seven.
Rielka,	•		•	Eight.
Koaka,		•		Ninc.
Soomka,	•		٠	Tcn.

By combining the first syllable of Soomka withe very intermediate number, as Soomkatka, Soomneeka, Soomtoomka, and so on, they reckon to twenty, which is Roboka. The same combination now takes place with Roboka, the final fyllable ka being struck off; it goes on Robokātkā, Roboneeka, &c. to thirty, which is expressed by Soomtoomka, or three tens. Forty is Soomleeka, or four tens; fifty, Soomrungaka, or five tens; and so on to a hundred, which is expressed by Rezaka. From Rezāka the final syllable ka being struck off, a fimilar combination, as above, takes place with Neeka, Toomka, &c. to one thousand, called Saungka. The preceding rule of striking off the final ka is obferved with Saungka, and thus go on to hundreds of thousands, beyond which their ideas of numbers do not extend, as far as could be understood from their having no terms to express them.

VII.

ON THE

SANSCRIT AND PRA'CRIT LANGUAGES.

By H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

IN a treatife on rhetorick, compiled for the use of MA'NICYA CHANDRA, Rájá of Tirabhuéti, or Tirhút, a brief enumeration of languages used by Hindu poets, is quoted from two writers on the art of poetry. The following is a literal translation of both passages.

"Sanscrita Prácrita, Pais áchi, and Mágad'hi, are, in short, the sour paths of poetry. The Gods, &c. speak Sanscrita; bevevolent genii, Prácrita; wicked demons, Pais áchi; and men of low tribes, and the rest, Mágad'hi. But sages deem Sanscrita the chief of these four languages. It is used three ways; in

profe, in verse, and in a mixture of both."

"LANGUAGE, again, the virtuous have declared to be fourfold; Sanscrita, [or the polished dialect;] Prácrita, [or the vulgar dialect;] Apabhransa, [or jargon;] and Miśra, [or mixed.] Sanscrita is the speech of the celestials, framed in grammatical institutes: Prácrita is similar to it, but manifold as a provincial dialect, and otherwise; and those languages which are ungrammatical, are spoken in their respective districts."

THE Pais achi feems to be gibberish, which dramatic poets make the demons speak when they bring these fantassic beings on the stage. The mixture of languages noticed in the second quotation, is that which is employed in dramas, as is expressly said by the same author in a subsequent verse. It is not then a compound language, but a mixt dialogue,

() 4

in which different persons of the drama employ disferent idioms. Both the passages above quoted are, therefore, easily reconciled. They, in sact, notice only three tongues. 1. Sanscrit, a polished dialect, the inslections of which, with all its numerous anomalies, are taught in grammatical institutes. This the dramatic poets put into the mouths of Gods, and of Holy personages. 2. Prācrit, consisting of provincial dialects, which are less refined, and have a more impersect grammar. In dramas it is spoken by women, benevolent genii, &c. 3. Māgad'hi, or Apabhransa, a jargon destitute of regular grammar. It is used by the vulgar, and varies in different districts: the poets accordingly introduce into the dialogue of plays, a provincial jargon, spoken by the lowest persons of the drama.*

The languages of India are all comprehended in these three classes. The first contains Sanserit, a most polished tongue, which was gradually refined, until it became fixed in the classic writings of many elegant poets, most of whom are supposed to have slourished in the century preceding the Christian æra. It is cultivated by learned Hindus throughout India, as the language of science and of literature, and as the repository of their law, civil and religious. It evidently draws its origin (and some steps of its progress may even now be traced) from a primeval tongue,

^{*} Sanscrita is the passive participle of a compound verb, formed by prefixing the preposition sam to the crude verb cri, and by interposing the letter s when this compound is used in the sense of embellishment. Its literal meaning then is, "adorned:" and when applied to a language, it signifies "polished." Prácrita is a similar derivative from the same crude verb, with pra prefixed; the most common acceptation of this word is "outcast, or man of the lowest class: a applied to a language, it signifies "vulgar." Apabhrans'a is derived from bhras', to fall down; it signifies a word, or dialect, which falls off from correct etymology. Grammarians use the Sanscrita as signifying "duly formed, or regularly inflected;" and Apabhrans'a for false grammar.

tongue, which was gradually refined in various climates, and became Sanscrit in India; Pahlavi in Perfia: and Greek on the shores of the Mediterranean. Like other very ancient languages, Sanscrit abounds in inflections, which are, however, more anomalous in this than in the other languages here alluded to; and which are even more so in the obsolete dialect of the Védas, than in the polished speech of the classic poets. It has nearly shared the fate of all ancient tongues, and is now become almost a dead language; but there feems no good reason for doubting that it was once universally spoken in India. Its name, and the reputed difficulty of its grammar, have led many persons to imagine, that it has been refined by the concerted efforts of a few priests, who set themselves about inventing a new language; not like all other tongues, by the gradually improved practice of good writers and polite speakers. The exquisitely refined system by which the grammar of Sanscrit is taught, has been mistaken for the refinement of the language itself. The rules have been supposed to be anterior to the practice; but this supposition is gratuitous. In Sanfcrit, as in every other known tongue, grammarians have not invented etymology, but have only contrived rules to teach what was already established by approved practice.

There is one peculiarity of Sanscrit compositions, which may also have suggested the opinion that it could never be a spoken language. I allude to what might be termed the euphonical orthography of Sanscrit. It consists in extending to syntax, the rules for the permutation of letters in etymology. Similar rules for avoiding incompatible sounds in compound terms exist in all languages; this is sometimes effected by a deviation from orthography in the pronunciation of words; sometimes by altering one or more letters, to make the spelling correspond with the pronunciation. These rules have been more prosoundly

profoundly investigated by *Hindu* grammarians than by those of any other nation, and they have completed a system of orthography which may be justly termed euphonical. They require all compound terms to be reduced to this standard; and Sanscrit authors, it may be observed, delight in compounds of inordinate length: the whole sentence too, or even whole periods, may, at the pleasure of the author, be combined like the elements of a single word, and good writers generally do fo. In common speech this could never have been practised. but well known compounds would be used by any fpeaker who wished to be understood, and each word would be diffinelly articulated, independently of the terms which precede and follow it. Such, indeed, is the present practice of those who still speak the Sanscrit language; and they deliver themselves with such fluency, as is sufficient to prove that Sanscrit may have been spoken in former times with as much facility as the contemporary dialects of the Greek language, or the more modern dialects of the Arabic tongue. I shall take occasion again to allude to this topic, after explaining at large, what are, and by whom were composed, those grammatical institutes in which the Sanfcrit language is framed, according to the author above quoted; or by which (for the meaning is ill conveyed by a literal translation) words are correctly formed and inflected.

PA'N'INI, the father of Sanscrit grammar, lived in so remote an age, that he ranks among those ancient sages whose fabulous history occupies a conspicuous place in the Puránas, or Indian theogonies.* The name

^{*} Every Puráná treats of five subjects; the creation of the universe, its progress, and the renovation of worlds; the genealogy of gods and heroes; chronology, according to a fabulous system; and heroick history, containing the achievements of demi-gods and heroes. Since each Puráná contains a cosmogony, with mythologi-

is a patronymick, indicating his descent from Pahin; but, according to the Pauránica legends, he was grandson of De'vala, an inspired legislator. Whatever may be the true history of PA'N'INI, to him the Sútras, or succinct aphorisms of grammar, are attributed by univerfal confent. His system is grounded on a profound investigation of the analogies in both the regular and the anomalous inflections of the Sanscrit language. He has combined those analogies in a very artificial manner, and has thus compressed a most copious etymology into a very narrow compass. His precepts are, indeed, numerous,* but they have been framed with the utmost conciseness; and this great brevity is the result of very ingenious methods, which have been contrived for this end, and for the purpose of affisting the student's memory. In Pa'n'ini's system, the mutual relation of all the parts marks that it must have been completed by its author: it certainly bears internal evidence of its having been accomplished by a fingle effort; and even the corrections which are needed. cannot be interwoven with the text. It must not be hence inferred, that Pa'n'ini was unaided by the labours of earlier grammarians: in many of his precepts he cites the authority of his predecessors,+ fometimes for a deviation from a general rule, often for a graniniatical canon which has univerfal cogency. He has even employed fome technical terms without defining them, because, as his commentators remark, those terms were already introduced by earlier grammarians. T None of the more ancient works.

cal and heroic history, the works which bear that title, may not unaptly be compared to the Grecian Theogenies.

^{*} Not fewer than 3996.

⁺ Sa'calya, Ga'rgya, Ca's'yapa, Ga'eava, Sa'cat'a'yana, and others.

t In a few instances he quotes former grammars to refute them.

works, however, feem to be now extant; being superseded by his, they have probably been disused for

ages, are are now perhaps totally loft.*

A PERFORMANCE such as the Paniniya grammar, must inevitably contain many errors. The task of correcting its inaccuracies has been executed by CA'TYA'YANA, † an inspired saint and law giver, whose history, like that of all the Indian sages, is involved in the impenetrable darkness of mythology. His annotations, entitled Varticas, restrict those among the Paniniya rules which are too vague, enlarge others which are too limited, and mark numerous exceptions which had escaped the notice of Pa'n'in himself.

The amended rules of grammar have been formed into memorial verses by Bhartri-hart, whose metrical aphorisms, entitled Cáricá, have almost equal authority with the precepts of Pa'n'ini, and emendations of Ca'tya'yana. If the popular traditions concerning Bhartri-hart be well founded, he lived in the century preceding the Christian era; for he is supposed to be the same with the brother of Vicramaditya; and the period when this prince reigned at Ujjayini, is determined by the date of the Samvat Æra.

THE studied brevity of the Pâhiniya Sútras renders them in the highest degree obscure. Even with the

^{*} Definitions of some technical terms, together with grammatical axioms, are also cited from those ancient works in the commentaries on Pa'n'ini. They are inserted in a compilation entitled Paribháshá, which will be subsequently noticed. The various ancient grammars of the Sanscrit tongue, as enumerated in a memorial verse, are eight in number, and ascribed to the following authors; viz. Indra, Chandra, C'as'a, Critsna', Pi'sa'li', S'a'cata'-yana, Pa'n'ini, and Amera Jine'ndra.

⁺ This name likewise is a patronymick.

[†] A beautiful poem has been composed in his name, containing moral reflectious, which the poet supposes him to make on the discovery of his wife's infidelity. It consists of either three or four Sizucus, or consumes of couplets.

the knowledge of the key to their interpretation, the student finds them ambiguous. In the application of them when understood, he discovers many seeming contradictions; and, with every exertion of practised memory, he must experience the utmost difficulty in combining rules dispersed in apparent confufion through different portions of Pa'n'ini's eight lectures. A commentary was therefore indispensably requifite. Many were composed by ancient grammarians to elucidate the text of PA'n'INI. copious one on the emendations of his rules, was compiled in very ancient times, by an uncertain author. This voluminous work, known by the title of Mahabhashya, or the Great Commentary, is ascribed to PATANJALI, a fabulous personage, to whom mythology has affigned the shape of a serpent. this commentary every rule is examined at great length. All possible interpretations are proposed: and the true sense and import of the rule are deduced through a tedious train of argument, in which all foreseen objections are considered and refuted: and the wrong interpretations of the text, with all the arguments which can be invented to support them, are obviated or exploded.

Voluminous as it is, the Mahábháshya has not exhausted the subject on which it treats. Its desiciencies have been supplied by the annotations of modern grammarians. The most celebrated among these scholiasts of the Bháshya is Caira'ra, a learned Cashmirian. His annotations are almost equally copious with the commentary itself. Yet they, too, are loaded by numerous glosses; among which the old and new Vivaranás are most esteemed.

The difficulty of combining the dispersed rules of grammar, to inslect any one verb or noun through all its variations, renders further aid necessary. This seems to have been anciently afforded in vocabularies, one of which exhibited the verbs classed in

the order implied by the fystem of PANINI; the other contained nouns arranged on a fimilar plan. Both probably cited the precepts which must be remembered in conjugating and declining each verb and noun. A catalogue of verbs, classed in regular order, but with few references to the rules of etvmology, is extant, and is known by the title of Dhátupáta. It may be confidered as an appendix to the grammar of PA'N'INI; and fo may his own treatise on the pronunciation of vocal sounds, and the treatife of Yasca on obsolete words, and acceptations peculiar to the Véda. A numerous class of derivative nouns, to which he has only alluded, have been reduced to rule under the head of Unadi, or the termination u, &c. and the precepts, respecting the gender of nouns, have been in like manner arranged in Sútras, which are formed on the same principles with PA'N'INI's rules, and which are confidered as almost equally ancient. Another supplement to his grammar is entitled Ganapáta, and contains lists of words comprehended in various grammatical rules under the designation of some single word, with the term "&c." annexed to it. These supplements are due to various authors. The subject of gender alone has been treated by more than one writer reputed to be inspired, namely, by CA'TYA'-YANA, GÓBHILA, and others.

These subsidiary parts of the Pániniya grammar do not require a laboured commentary; excepting only the catalogue of verbs, which does need annotation, and which is, in truth, a proper ground-work for a complete review of all the rules of etymology that are applicable to each verb.* The Vrittinyása,

[•] The number of verbal roots amounts to 1750 nearly; 'exclusive of many obsolete words omitted in the D'hátupáta, but noticed in the Sútras as the roots of certain derivatives. The crude verbs, however, are more numerous, because many roots, containing the same radical letters, are variously conjugated in different senses: the whole number of crude verbs separately noticed in the cata-

a very celebrated work, is, I believe, a commentary of this fort.* It is mentioned by MAITRE'YA RACSHITA, the author of the D'háta pradípa, as the work chiefly confulted by him in compiling his brief annotations on the D'hátupáta. A very voluminous commentary on the catalogue of verbs was compiled under the patronage of SAYAN'A, minister of a chieftain named SANGAMA, and is entitled Mád'havíyá vritti. It thoroughly explains the fignification and inflection of each 'verb; but at the same time enters largely into scholastic resinements on general grammar.

Such vast works as the Mahabhashya, and its scholia, with the voluminous annotations on the catalogue of verbs, are not adapted for general instruction: a conciser commentary must have been always requisite. The best that is now extant, is entitled the Cásicá vritti, or Commentary composed at Varánasi. The anonymous author of it, in a short preface, explains his design: 'to gather the essence of a science dispersed in the early commentaries, in the Bháshya, in copious dictionaries of verbs and of nouns, and in other works.' He has well fulfilled the task which he undertook. His gloss explains, in perspicuous language, the meaning and application of each rule. He adds examples, and quotes, in their proper places, the necessary emendations from the Varticas and Bhashya. Though he never deviates into frivolous disquisitions, nor into tedious reasoning, but expounds the text as fuccin&ly

logue exceeds three thousand. From each of these are deduced many compound verbs, by prefixing one or more prepositions to the verbal root. Such compounds often deviate very widely in their signification, and some even in their inflections, from the radical verb. The derivative verbs again are numerous; such as causals, frequentatives, &c. Hence it may be readily perceived how copious this branch of grammar must be.

* I have not yet had an opportunity of inspecting either this or its gloss. It has been described to me as a commentary on the Cásicá zriui.

fuccinetly as could confift with perspicuity, his work is nevertheless voluminous; and yet, copious as it is, the commentaries on it, and the annotations on its commentaries, are still more voluminous. Amongst the most celebrated is the *Padamanjari* of HARADATTA MIŚRA; a grammarian whose authority is respected almost equally with that of the author on whose text he comments. The annotators on this again are numerous; but it would be useless to insert a long list of their names, or of the titles of their works.

Excellent as the Cásica vritti undoubtedly is, it partakes of the defects which have been imputed to Pain'tni's text. Following the same order in which the original rules are arranged, it is well adapted to affift the student in acquiring a critical knowledge of the Sanfcrit tongue. But for one who studies the rudiments of the language, a different arrangement is requisite, for the sake of bringing into one view, the rules which must be remembered in the inflections of one word, and those which must be combined even for a single variation of a single term. Such a grammar has been compiled within a few centuries past by Ra'machandra, an eminent grammarian. It is entitled Pracriyacaumudi. The rules are Pa'n'ini's, and the explanation of them is abridged from the ancient commentaries; but the arrangement is wholly different. It proceeds from the elements of writing to definitions; thence to orthography: it afterwards exhibits the inflections of nouns according to case, number, and gender; notices the indeclinables; and proceeds to the uses of the cases; it subjoins the rules of opposition, by which compound terms are formed; the etymology of patronymicks, and other derivatives from nouns, and the reduplication of particles, &c. In the second part, it treats of the conjugation of verbs arranged in ten classes: to these primitives fucceed derivative verbs, formed from verbal roots,

or from nouns. The rules concerning different voices follow: they are succeeded by precepts regarding the use of the tenses; and the work concludes with the etymology of verbal nouns, gerunds, supplies, and participles. A supplement to it contains the anomalies of the dialect, in which the Véda is

composed.

THE outline of PA'N'INI's arrangement is simple; but numerous exceptions, and frequent digressions. have involved it in much seeming confusion. two first lectures (the first section especially, which is in a manner the key of the whole grammar) contain definitions; in the three next are collected the affixes, by which verbs and nouns are inflected. Those which appertain to verbs, occupy the third lecture: the fourth and fifth contain such as are affixed to nouns. The remaining three lectures treat of the changes which roots and affixes undergo in special cases, or by general rules of orthography. and which are all effected by the addition, or by the substitution, of one or more elements.* The apparent fimplicity of the design vanishes in the perplexity of the structure. The endless pursuit of exceptions, and of limitations, fo disjoins the general precepts, that the reader cannot keep in view their intended connexion, and mutual relation: he wanders in an intricate maze; and the clew of the labyrinth is continually slipping from his hands.

The order in which RA'MACHANDRA has delivered the rules of grammar, is certainly preferable; but the fútras of PA'N'INI thus detached from their context, are wholly unintelligible. Without the commentator's exposition, they are, indeed, what Sir William Jones has somewhere termed them, dark as the darkest oracle. Even with the aid of a comment, they cannot be fully understood, until they are perused with the proper context. Notwithstanding

Vol. VII. P this

^{*} Even the expunging of a letter is considered as the substitution of a blank.

this defect, BHA'T'T'O'II' Dicshita, who revised the Camudi, has, for very substantial reasons, adhered to the Paniniya súcras. That able grammarian has made some useful changes in the arrangement of the Pracriya: he has amended the explanation of the rules, which was in many places incorrect or imperfect: he has remedied many omissions; has enlarged the examples; and has noticed the most important instances where the elder grammarians disagree, or where classical poets have deviated from the strict rules of grammar. This excellent work is entitled Sidd'hánta Caumudi. The author has very properly followed the example of Ramachandra, in excluding all rules that are peculiar to the obsolete dialect of the Véda, or which relate to accentuation; for this also belongs to the Véda alone. has collected them in an appendix to the Sidd'hanta Caumudi; and has subjoined, in a second appendix, rules concerning the gender of nouns. The other supplements of PA'N'INI's grammar are interwoven by this author with the body of his work.

THE Hindus delight in scholastick disputation: their grammarians indulge this propensity as much as their lawyers and their sophists.† Bha't't'o'ji' Dicshita has provided an ample store of controversy in an argumentative commentary on his own grammar. This work is entitled Pranta menóramá. He also composed a very voluminous commentary on the eight lectures of Pa'n'ini, and gave it the title of S'abda Caustubha. The only portion of it I have yet seen, reaches no farther than to the end of the first section of Pa'n'ini's first lecture. But this is so diffusive, that, if the whole have been executed on a similar plan, it must triple the ponderous volume

^{*} Descendants of Bh'a' r' 1'o'11', in the fifth or sixth degree, are, I am told, now living at Benares. He must have flourished then between one and two centuries ago.

⁺ Many separate treatises on different branches of general grammar, are very properly considered as appertaining to the science of logick.

lume of the Mahabhashya itself. I have reason, however, for doubting that it was ever completed.

THE commentaries on the Siddhanta Caumudi and Manóramá, are very numerous. The most celebrated shall be here briesly noticed. 1. The Tatwa bód'hiní expounds the Sidd'hánta: it is the work of INYA'NE'NDRA SARASWATI, an ascetick, and the pupil of VAMANE'NDRA SWA'MI'. 2. The Sabdendu séc'hara is another commentary on Bha't't'oji". grammar. It was composed by a successor, if not a descendant, of that grammarian. An abridgement of it, which is very generally studied, is the work of Na'ge's'a, fon of S'IVA BHAT'T'A, and pupil of HARIDÍCSHITA. He was patronifed, as appears from his preface, by the proprietor of Sringavira púra.* Though called an abridgement, this Laghu Sábdéndu is a voluminous performance. Laghu Sábdaratna is a commentary on the Manóramá of Bha't't'o'jí Dícshita, by the author's grandson, Harí Dícshita. This work is not improperly termed an abridgement, fince it is short in comparison with most other commentaries on gram-A larger performance on the fame topicks, and with the same title of Sábda ratna, was composed by a professor of this school. 4. BA'LA SAR MAN' PA'GON'DIYA, who is either fourth or fifth in fuccession from Bha't't'o'ii, as professor of grammar at Benares, has written commentaries on the Caustubha, Sábda ratna, and Sabdéndu séc'hara. His father, BAIDYARAT'HA BHAT'T'A, largely annotated the Paribhashendu sec'hara of Na'goj'i Bhat'i'a, which is an argumentative commentary on a collection of grammatical axioms and definitions cited by the gloffarists of PA'N'INI. This compilation, entitled Paribháshá, has also furnished the text for other controversial performances bearing similar titles.

P 2 WHILE

^{*} A town on the Ganges, marked Singhore in Rennel's Maps. It is situated above Illuhabad.

While so many commentaries have been written on the Sidd'hánta Caumudi, the Pracriya Caumudi has not been neglected. The scholiasts of this, too, are numerous. The most known is Crishn'a Pand'ita; and his work has been abridged by his pupil Jayanta, who has given the title of Tatwa chandra to a very excellent compendium.* On the other hand, Crishn'a Pand'ita has had the sate common to all noted grammarians; since his work has employed a host of commentators, who have largely commented on it.

The Caumudis, independently even of their numerous commentaries, have been found too vast and intricate for young students. Abridgements of the Sidd'hanta Caumudi have been therefore attempted by several others, with unequal degrees of success. Of three such abridgements, one only seems to deserve present notice. It is the Mad'hya Caumudi, and is accompanied by a similar compendium of annotations, entitled Mad'hya Ménoramá. The name indicates, that it holds a middle place between the disfuse original, and the jejune abstracts called Laghu Caumudi, acc. It contains such of Pa'n'ini's rules as are most universal, and adds to each a short but perspicuous exposition. It omits only the least common exceptions and limitations.

When Sanscrit was the language of Indian courts, and was cultivated not only by persons who devoted themselves to religion and literature, but also by princes, lawyers, soldiers, physicians, and scribes; in short, by the first three tribes, and by many classes included in the fourth; an easy and popular grammar must have been needed by persons who could not waste the best years of their lives in the study of words. Such grammars must always have been in use: those, however, which are now studied.

^{*} Finished by him, as appears from a postscript to the book, in the year 1687 of the Sumput era. Though he studied at Benares, he appears to have been born on the banks of the Tupati, a river marked Tapate in RENNEL'S Map.

died, are not, I believe, of very ancient date. The most esteemed is the Sáraswata, together with its commentary, named Chandrica. It seems to have been formed on one of the Caumudis, by translating PAN'I'NI's rules into lauguage that is intelligible, independently of the gloss, and without the necessity of adverting to a different context.

ANOTHER popular grammar, which is in high repute in Bengal, is entitled Mugd'habod ha, and is accompanied by a commentary. It is the work of Vó-FADE'VA, and proceeds upon a plan grounded on that of the Caumudis; but the author has not been content to translate the rules of PA'n'ini, and to adopt his technical terms: he has, on the contrary, invented new terms, and contrived new abbreviations. The fame author likewise composed a metrical catalogue of verbs alphabetically arranged: it is named Cavicalpadruma, and is intended as a substitute for the D'hátupátà.

THE chief inconvenience attending VOPADE'VA's innovation is, that commentaries and scholia, written to elucidate poems and works of science, must be often unintelligible to those who have studied only his grammar, and that the writings of his scholars must be equally incomprehensible (wherever a grammatical subject is noticed) to the students of the Pániniya. Accordingly, the Pandits of Bengal are cut off, in a manner, from communication on grammatical topics with the learned of other pro-Even etymological dictionaries. vinces in India. fuch as the commentaries on the metrical vocabularies, which I shall next proceed to mention, must be unintelligible to them.

IT appears, from the prefaces of many different grammatical treatifes, that works, entitled Dhátu and Náma páráyaha, were formerly studied. They must have comprehended, as their title implies, " the whole of the verbs and nouns" appertaining to the language; and fince they are mentioned as very vo-

luminous. Pq

luminous, they must probably have contained references to all the rules applicable to every single verb and noun. HARADATTA's explanation of the title confirms this notion. But it does not appear that any work is now extant under this title. The D'hátupáta, with its commentaries, supplies the place of the D'hátupárayaha. A collection of dictionaries, and vocabularies, in like manner, supplies the want of the Náma párayaná. These, then, may be noticed in this place as a branch of grammar.

The best and most esteemed vocabulary is the Amera cosha. Even the bigotry of Sancar A'cha'RYA spared this, when he proscribed the other works of Amera Sinha.* Like most other Sanscrit dictionaries.

^{*} AMER-SINH was an eminent poet, and one of the nine gems (for so these poets were called) who were the ornament of Vicra-MA'DITYA's court. Unfortunately, he held the tenets of a heterodox sect; and his poems are said to have perished in the persecutions fomented by intolerant philosophers against the persons and writings of both Jainas and Baudd'has. The persecution instigated by Sancara and Udayan A'cha'rya, were enforced, perhaps, from political motives, by princes of the Vaishn'ava and S'aira sects, who compelled the BAUDD'HA monarchs to retire from Hindustan, and to content themselves with their dominions of Lásara and Bhót'a. It would be curious to investigate the date of this important revolution. The present conjecture (for it is little more than mere conjecture) is partly founded upon some acknowledgements made by Pandits, who confess that SANCARA and UDA-YANA persecuted the heterodox sects, and proscribed their books: and partly on the evidence of the engraved plate found at Mudgagiri, and of the inscription on the pillar found at Bedal, (See As. Res. v. 1. p. 123 & 183,) from which it appears, that Deva-PA'LA DE'VA belonged to the sect of Budd'HA, and that he reigned over Bengal and Car'nat'a as well as Latat' and Bhet; and had successfully invaded Cambója, after traversing as a conqueror the Vind'hva range of mountains. His descendants, as far as the fourth generation, governed a no less extensive empire, as appears from the inscription on the pillar at Bedal. I must, however, acknowledge, that this last mentioned inscription does not indicate any attachment to the sect of Budd'HA. This may be accounted for, by supposing that the worshippers of Caishn's, and of RA'MA, were then as cordial to the followers of Budn'ha, and as they now are towards each other. The king and his minister might belong to different sects. AMERA

tionaries, it is arranged in verse, to aid the memory. Synonymous words are collected into one or more verses, and placed in fifteen different chapters, which treat of as many different subjects. The sixteenth contains a few homonymous terms, arranged alphabetically in the Indian manner by the final consonants. The seventeenth chapter is a pretty sull catalogue of indeclinables, which European philologists would call adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections; but which Sanscrit grammarians consider as indeclinable nouns. The last chapter of the Ameracosh is a treatise on the gender of nouns. Another vocabulary, by the same author, is often cited by his commentators under the title of Ameramalá.

Numerous commentaries have been written on the Ameracosh. The chief object of them is to explain the derivations of the nouns, and to supply the principal deficiencies of the text. Sanscrit etymologists scarcely acknowledge a single primitive amongst the nouns. When unable to trace an ety-mology which may be consistent with the acceptation of the word, they are content to derive it according to grammatical rules, from fome root to which the word has no affinity in fense. At other times they adopt fanciful etymologies from Puránas or from Tantras: but, in general, the derivations are accurate and instructive. The best known among these commentaries of the Amercosha, is the Padra chandricá, compiled from fixteen older commentaries, by VRIHASPATI, surnamed Mucut'a, or, at

Amena is mentioned in an inscription at Budd'ha gaya as the founder of a temple at that place. (As. Res. v. i. p. 284.) This circumstance may serve to explain why his works have been proscribed with peculiar inveteracy, as it is acknowledged by many Pandits that they have been. He was probably a zealous see tarist.

This is, however, by no means certain: and Bha'nuji' D'iscrita, in his commentary on the Amera cosha, denies that there is any evidence to prove that the author belonged to the sect of Jainas.

at full length, RA'YA MUCUT'A MAN'I. It appears from the incidental mention of the years then expired of astronomical eras, that Mucur's made this compilation in the 4532d year of the Cali yug, which corresponds with A. D. 1430. ACHYUTA JALLACI' has abridged Mucur'a's commentary, but without acknowledgement, and has given the title of Vyác'hyá pradipa to his compendium. On the other hand, BHA'NUJÍ-DÍCSHITA has revised the same compilation. and has corrected the numerous errors of Mucur'A, who often derives words from roots that are unknown to the language, or according to rules which have no place in its grammar. Bea'nují has greatly improved the plan of the work, by inferting, from other authorities, the various acceptations of words exhibited by AMERA in one or two fenses only. This excellent compilation is entitled Vyách'ya fud'há.

THE Amera cosha, as has been already hinted, gives a very incomplete lift of words that have various acceptations. This defect is well supplied by the Médini, a dictionary so named from its author, ME'DINICAR. It contains words that bear many senses, arranged in alphabetical order by the final consonants; and a list of homonymous indeclinables is subjoined to it. A similar dictionary, compiled by MAHE's WARA, and entitled Viswa pracása, is much consulted, though it be very defective, as has been justly remarked by ME'DINICAR. It contains, however, a very useful appendix on words spelt more than one way; and another on letters which are liable to be confounded, such as v and b; and another again on the gender of nouns. These subjects are not separately treated by ME'DINIGAR; but he has, on the other hand, specified the genders with great care in the body of the work. The exact age of the Médini is not certainly known; but it is older than MUCUT'A's compilation, fince it is quoted by this author.

AMERA's dictionary does not contain more than ten thousand different words; yet the Sanscrit language is very copious. The infertion of derivatives, that do not at all deviate from their regular and obvious import, has been very properly deemed superfluous. Compound epithets, and other compound terms, in which the Sanscrit language is peculiarly rich, are likewise omitted; excepting such as are especially appropriated, by a limited acceptation, either as titles of deities, or as names of plants, animals, &c. In fact, compound terms are formed at pleasure, according to the rules of grammar, and must generally be interpreted in strict conformity with those rules. Technical terms, too, are mostly excluded from general dictionaries, and configned to separate nomenclatures. The Ameracosh, then, is less desective than might be inferred from the small number of words explained in it. Sull, however, it needs a supplement. The Hárávali may be used as such. It is a vocabulary of uncommon words, compiled by Purusnóttama, the author of an etymological work, and also of a little collection of monograms, entitled E'cacshara. His Haravali was compiled by him under the patronage of D'HRITA SINHA. It is noticed by ME'DINICAR, and feems to be likewise anterior to the Viśwa.

The remaining desiciencies of the Ameracosh are supplied by consulting other dictionaries and vocabularies; such as Helayndha's, Va'chespati's, the Dharanicosha, or some other. Sanscrit dictionaries are, indeed, very numerous. Purushottama and Me'dinicar name the Utbalini, Sabdarnava, and Sansaravarta, as works consulted by them. Purushottama adds the names of Va'chespati, Vya'd'i, and Vicrama'ditya; but it is not quite clear whether he mentions them as the authors and patrons of these, or of other dictionaries. Me'dinicar adds a fourth vocabulary, called Năma-mâla, and with similar obscurity subjoins the celebrated names of Bha'curi,

VARARUCHI, SA's'WATA, BÓPA'LITA, and RANTIDE'VA. He then proceeds to enumerate the dictionaries of Amera, S'ubha'nga, Hela'ynd'ha, Góverd'hana, RABHASA PA'LA, and the Ratnacosha; with the vocabularies of Rudra, Dhananjaya, and Ganga'd'HARA; as also the Dharanicosha, Haravali, Vrihadamara, Tricánd'asésha, and Ratnamála. Many of these are cited by the commentators on AMERA, and by the scholiasts on different poems. The following are also frequently cited; some as etymologists, the rest as lexicographers: Swa'mi, Durga, Sarvad-HARA VA'MANA, CHANDRA, and the authors of the Vaijaynti Namanid'hana, Haima, Vilhat-nighanti, &c. To this list might be added the Anécart'ha, dwani manjari Nanartha, and other vocabularies of homonymous terms; the Dwiructi, Bhuriprayoga cosha, and c her lifts of words spelt in more than one way; and the various Nighantis, or nomenclators, such es the Dhanwantari nighanta and Rajanighanta, which contain lifts of the materia medica; and the Nighanti of the Véda, which explains obsolete words, and unufual acceptations.*

BEFORE I proceed to mention other languages of India, it may be proper to mention, that the school of Benares now uses the Sidd harta caumudi, and other works of Bhatióji, as the same school sormerly did the Cásicá vriiti. The Pracriyà caumudi, with its commentaries, maintains its ground among the learned of Mithilà, or Tirhút. In both places, however, and, indeed, throughout India, the Mahabhashya continues to be the standard of Sanscrit grammar. It is therefore studied by all who are ambitious of acquiring a critical knowledge of the language. The Haricárica,

^{*} The Niructi, as explained in Sir William Jones's Treatise on the Literature of the Hindus, belongs to the same class with the Nighanti of the Véda: and a small vocabulary, under both these titles, is commonly annexed to the Rigvéda, to complete the set of Upavédas. There is, however, a much larger work, entitled Niructi; and the commenta ors of it are often cited upon topics of general grammar.

ricáricá, with its commentaries by He'LA'RA'JA and Punjara'JA, was probably in use with a school that once slourished at Ujjayini; but it does not seem to be now generally studied in any part of India.

The second class of Indian languages comprehends the written dialects which are now used in the intercourse of civil life, and which are cultivated by lettered men. The author of a passage already quoted, includes all such dialects under the general denomination of Prácrit: but this term is commonly restricted to one language, namely, to the Saraswati bála báni, or the speech of children on the banks of the Saraswati.* There is reason to believe, that ten polished dialects formerly prevailed in as many different civilized nations, who occupied all the fertile provinces of Hindustán and the Dekhin. Evident traces of them still exist. They shall be noticed in the order in which these Hindu nations are usually enumerated.

THE Sárefwata was a nation which occupied the banks of the river Sárafwatí. Bráhmanas, who are still distinguished by the name of their nation, inhabit chiefly the Penjáb, or Panchanada, west of the river from which they take their appellation. Their original language may have once prevailed through the fouthern and western parts of Hinduslan Proper. and is probably the idiom to which the name of Prácrit is generally appropriated. This has been more cultivated than any other among the dialects which will be here enumerated, and it occupies a principal place in the dialogue of most dramas. Many beautiful poems, composed wholly in this language, or intermixed with stanzas of pure Sanferit, have perpetuated the memory of it; though, perhaps, it 'have long ccased to be a vernacular tongue. Grammars have been compiled for the purpose of teaching this language and its profody, and feveral treatifes

^{*} The term will bear a different interpretation: but this recent to be the most probable explanation of it. The other (youtalal speech of Saraswati) is generally received.

treatifes of rhetorick have been written to illustrate its beauties. The Prácrita manoramà, and Prácrita Pingala, are instances of the one; and the Sarafwati Cantábharana of Bhójade'va, may be named as an example of the other; although both Sanfcrit and Prácrit idioms furnish the examples with which that author elucidates his precepts. For the character of the Prácrit language, I must refer the reader to Sir WILLIAM JONES's remarks in his preface to the translation of the Fatal Ring.

THE Cányacubjas possessed a great empire, the metropolis of which was the ancient city of Canyacubia. or Canój. Theirs seems to be the language which forms the ground-work of modern Hindustani, and which is known by the appellation of Hindi, or Hindevi. Two dialects of it may be easily distinguished; one more refined, the other less so. To this last the name of Hindi is sometimes restricted, while the other is often confounded with Pracrit. Numerous poems have been composed in both dialects, not only before the Hindustani was ingrafted on the Hindi by a large intermixture of Persian, but also in very modern times, by Muhammedan as well as Hindu poets. Dohrás, or detached couplets, and Cabits, or stanzas, in the Hindevi, may be found among the works of Muslemán authors; it will be sufficient to instance those of Melic Muhammed Jaisí, Muhammed Afzel, and Amírkha'n An-Ja'Me Most poems in this dialect are, however, the exclusive production of Hindu poets.* On examin-

[•] Among the most admired specimens of Hindi poetry, the seven hundred couplets of Piha'ri'La'r, and the amatory verses of Su'n-DER, and of MATIRA'M, are conspicuous. But their dialect is not pure Hinderi, since they sometimes borrow from the Persian language. SU'NDER wrote his poems in the reign of Sha'hjeha'n, and seems to have been patronized by that prince, whom he praises in his preface. BIRA'RI'L Y'L flourished at the court of Ambher, towards the beginning of the sixteenth century of the Christian era. This poems were arranged in their present order for the use of the unfortunate prince A'ZEM

ing them, the affinity of Hindi with the Sanfcrit language is peculiarly striking; and no person acquainted with both, can hesitate in affirming, that Hindi is chiefly borrowed from Sanfcrit. Many words of which the etymology shows them to be the purest Sanscrit, are received unaltered; many more undergo no change, but that of making the final vowel filent: a still greater number exhibits no other difference than what arises from the uniform permutation of certain letters: the rest, too, with comparatively few exceptions, may be easily traced to a Sanscrit origin. That this is the root from which Hindi has fprung. (not Hindi the dialect, whence Sanscrit has been refined,) may be proved by etymology, the analogy of which is lost in Hindi, and preserved in Sanscrit. A few examples will render this evident.

CRÍYA' fignifies action, and Carma, act, both of

which are regularly derived from the root Cri, to do. They have been adopted into Hindustani, with many other regular derivatives of the same root; (such, for example, as Carana, [contracted into Carna,] the act of doing; Cartá, the agent; Cárah, cause, or the means, of doing; Cárya, [Cárj, Cáj,] the thing to be done, and the intent or purpose of the action.) But I select these two instances, because both words are adopted into Hindustani in two several modes. Thus Criá fignifies action; and Ciriá expresses one metaphorical fense of the same Sanscrit word, viz. oath. or ordeal. Again, Ciriá-caram fignifies funeral nites; but Câm is the most usual form in which the Samscrit Carma is exhibited in the Hindustani; and it thus assumes the same form with Cám, desire, a very different word taken from the Sanscrit derivative of the root Cam, to seek: here then, Hindustani confounds

A'ZEM SHA'H, and the modern edition is therefore called A'zemsha. hi. The old edition has been elegantly translated into Sanscrift verse, by Heripresa'Da' Pandita, under the patronage of Cur't Bin'n, when Raja of Benares.

founds two very different words in one instance, and makes two words out of one in the other instance.

SAT literally fignifies existent; it is employed in the acceptation of truth: Satya, a regular derivative from it, fignifies true; or, employed substantively, truth. The correspondent Hinds word, fach, is corrupted from the Sanscrit satya, by neglecting the final vowel, by substituting j for y, according to the genius of the Hindevi dialect, and by transforming the harsh combination tj into the softer sound of ch. Here then is obviously traced the identity of the Hindustant sach, and Bengáli shotyo, which are only the same Sanscrit word satya variously pronounced.

YUVAN signifies young, and yauvana, youth: the first makes Yuvá in the nominative case: this is adopted into Hindustani with the usual permutation of consonants, and becomes Jubá, as Yauvana is transformed into Jóban. The same word has been less corrupted in Persian and Latin, where it stands Juwan and Juvenis. In many inflections, the root of Yuvan is contracted into Yún; the possessive case, for example, forms in the three numbers, Yúnas, Yunós, Yúnám: here, then, we trace the origin of the Latin comparative Junior: and I cannot hefi-tate in referring to these Sanferit roots, the Welsh Fevangk, and Armorican Fovank, as well as the Saxon Yeong, and finally, the English Young. This analogy, which feems evident through the medium of the Sanscrit language, is wholly obscured in Hindustáni.

These examples might be easily multiplied, but unprofitably, I fear; for, after proving that ninetenths of the Hindi dialect may be traced back to the Sanscrit idiom, there yet remains the difficulty of accounting for the remaining tenth, which is, perhaps, the basis of the Hindi language. Sir William Jones thought it so, and he thence inferred, that the pure Hindi was primeval in Upper India, into which the Sanscrit was introduced by conque-

res from other kingdoms in some very remote age.* This opinion I do not mean to controvert: I only contend, that where similar words are found in both languages, the Hindi has borrowed from Sanfcrit. rather than the Sanscrit from Hindi. It may be remarked too, that in most countries the progress has been from languages rich in inflections, to dialects fimple in their structure. In modern idioms, auxiliary verbs, and appendant particles, supply the place of numerous inflections of the root: it may, for this reason, be doubted, whether the present structure of the Hindi tongue be not a modern refinement. But the question which has been here hinted, rather than discussed, can be decided only by a careful examination of the oldest compositions that are now extant in the Hindi dialect. Until some person execute this task, a doubt must remain, whether the ground-work of Hindi, and consequently of Hindustani, be wholly distinct from that of Sanscrit.

On the subject of the modern dialect of Upper India, I with pleasure refer to the works of a very ingenious member of this Society, Mr. GILCHRIST, whose labours have now made it easy to acquire the knowledge of an elegant language, which is used in every part of Hindustán and the Dekhin; which is the common vehicle of colloquial intercourse among ail well-educated natives, and among the illiterate also in many provinces of India, and which is almost every where intelligible to some among the inhabitants of every village. The dialects, which will be next noticed, are of more limited use.

GAURA, Tor, as it is commonly called, Bengalah, or Bengali, is the language spoken in the provinces,

^{*} Third Anniversary Discourse.

f It is necessary to remark, that although Gaura be the name of Bongal, yet the Brahmanas who bear that appellation, are not inhabitants of Bengal, but of Hinduston Proper. They reside chiefly in the Suba of Delhi; while the Brahmanas of Bengal are arowed colonists.

of which the ancient city of Gaur was once the capital: it still prevails in all the provinces of Bengal. excepting, perhaps, some frontier districts, but is said to be spoken in its greatest purity in the eastern parts only; and, as there spoken, contains few words which are not evidently derived from Sanfcrit. This. dialect has not been neglected by learned men. Many Sanscrit poems have been translated, and some original poems have been composed in it: learned Hindus in Bengal speak it almost exclusively: verbal instruction in sciences is communicated through this medium; and even public disputations are conducted in this dialect. Instead of writing it in the Déva-nágari, as the Prácrit and Hindevi are written,* the inhabitants of Bengal have adopted a peculiar character, which is nothing else but Déva-nágarí, difformed for the fake of expeditious writing. Even the learned amongst them employ this character for the Sanforit language, the pronunciation of which. too, they in like manner degrade to the Bengáli standard. The labours of Mr. HALHED and Mr. Fors-TER, have already rendered a knowledge of the Bengálí dialect acceffibie; and Mr. Forster's further exertions will still more facilitate the acquisition of a language, which cannot but be deemed greatly useful, fince it prevails throughout the richest and most valuable portion of the British possessions in India-

MAIT'HILA

nists from Canój. It is difficult to account for this contradiction. The Gaura Bráhmanas alledge a tradition, that their ancestors migrated in the days of the Pándavas, at the commencement of the present Cali Ynga. Though no plausible conjecture can be founded on this tradition, yet I am induced to retract a conjecture formerly hazarded by me, that the Gar of our maps was the original country of the Gaura priests.

* Prácrit and Hindí books are commonly written in the Dévarágari; but a corrupt writing, called Nágari, is used by Hindus in all common transactions where Hindí is employed by them; and a still more corrupted one, wherein vowels are for the most part omitted, is employed MAIT'HILA, OF Tirhutiya, is the language used in Mit'hila, that is, in the Sircar of Tirhut, and in some adjoining districts, limited however by the rivers Cusi (Causici,) and Gandhac (Gandhaci,) and by the mountains of Népâl: it has great affinity with Bengâli; and the character in which it is written differs little from that which is employed throughout Bengal. In Tirhut, too, the learned write Sanscrit in the Tirhutiya character, and pronounce it after their own inelegant manner. As the dialect of Mit'hila has no extensive use, and does not appear to have been at any time cultivated by elegant poets, it is unnecessary to notice it further in this place.

UTCALA, or O'd'radésa, is co-extensive with the Subá of O'réfá, extending from Médinipur to Mánacapattana, and from the sea to Sammall-pur. The language of this province, and the character in which it is written, are both called Uriya. So far as a judgment can be formed from imperfect specimens of this language, it contains many Sanscrit words variously corrupted, with some Persian and Arabick terms borrowed through the medium of Hindustani, and with others of doubtful origin. The letters are evidently taken from the Dévanagari; and the Brahmens of this province use the Uriya character in writing the Sanscrit language: its deviations from the Dévanágari may be explained, from the practice of writing on palm leaves with an iron style, or on paper with a pen cut from a porcupine's quill. It differs in this respect from the hand-writing of northern tribes, and is analogous to that of the fouthern inhabitants of the peninsula.

Vol. VII. Q THE

employed by bankers, and others, in mercantile transactions. I must here confess, that I can give no satisfactory explanation of the term. The common etymology of Nágarí is unsatisfactory; unless Nagara be taken as the name of some particular place emphatically called the City.

The five Hindu nations, whose peculiar dialects have been thus briefly noticed, occupy the northern and eastern portions of India; they are denominated the five Gaurs. The rest, called the five Dravirs, inhabit the southern and western parts of the peninsula. Some Pandits, indeed, exclude Carnata, and substitute Casmirian tribe; and, by adding the Canaras to the list of Dravirs, avoid the inconsistency of placing a northern tribe among southern nations. There is reason, too, for doubting whether Cassimira be occupied by a distinct nation, and whether the inhabitants of it be not rather a tribe of Canyacubjas.

DRA'VIRA is the country which terminates the peninfulo of India. Its northern limits appear to lie between the twelfth and thirteenth degrees of north latitude. The language of the province is the Támel, to which Europeans have given the name of Malabor,* from Malay-wár, a province of Dráxira. They have fimilarly corrupted the true name of the dialect into Ianuli, Tanulic, and Tamulian:† but the word, as pronounced by the natives, is Támla, or Támalah; and this scems to indicate a derivation from Támra, or Támraparn'i, a river of note, which waters the fouthern Máthura, situated within the limits, of Drávir. The provincial dialect is written in a character which is greatly corrupted from the parent Dévanágari, but which nevertheless is used by the Brähmens of Drávir in writing the Sanscrit language. After carefully inspecting a grammar published by Mr. Drummond at Bombay, and a dictionary by missionaries

^{*} A learned Bréhmen of Drávira positively assures me, that the dialect of Malabar, though confounded by Europeans with the Timel, is different from it, and is not the language to which Europeans have allotted that appellation.

[†] The Romish and Protestant missionaries, who have published dictionaries and grammars of this dialect, refer to another language, which they denominate Grandam, and Grandonicum. It appears that Sanscrit is meant; and the term thus corrupted by hem is Grantha, a volume or book.

missionaries at Madras, I can wenture to pronounce, that the Tâmla contains many Sansorit words, either unaltered, or little changed, with others more corrupted, and a still greater number of doubtful origin.

THE Maharáshtra, or Mahrátta, is the language of a nation which has in the present century greatly enlarged its ancient limits. If any inference may be drawn from the name of the character in which the language is written, the country occupied by this people was formerly called Múru;* for the peculiar corruption of the Dévanágari, which is employed by the Maharashtras in common transactions, is denominated by them Múr. Their books, it must be remarked, are commonly written in Dévanágari. The Mahrátta nation was formerly confined to a mountainous tract, fituated fouth of the river Nermada, and extending to the province of Cócán. Their language is now more widely spread, but is not yet become the vernacular dialect of provinces fituated far beyond the ancient bounds of their country. other Indian tongues, it contains much pure Sanferit, and more corruptions of that language, intermixed with words borrowed from Persian and Arabick, and with others derived from an unknown fource. the bards of Múru were once famous, their supposed fuccessors, though less celebrated, are not less diligent. The Mahráttas possess many poems in their own dialect, either translated from the Sanferit, or original compositions in honour of CRISHNA', RAMA', and other deified heroes. Treatises in prose, too, on fubiects of logick and of philosophy, have been composed in the Mahrátta dialect.

CARNATA, or Cárnara, is the ancient language of Carnátaca, a province which has given name to districts on both coasts of the peninsula. This dia-

Q 🙎 lcd

^{*} Mentioned in the royal grant preserved at a famous temple in Carnada. See As. Res. v. III. p. 48. However, the Mahrattas themselves affirm, that the Múru character was introduced amongst them from the sisland of Silán.

lest still prevails in the intermediate mountainous tract, but seems to be superseded by other provincial tongues on the eastern coast. A peculiar character, formed from the Dévanágari, but, like the Támla, much corrupted from it, through the practice of writing on palm-leaves with an iron style, is called by the same name with the language of Carhâtic. Bráhmens of this tribe have assured me, that the language bears the same assinity to Sanscrit as other dialects of the Dacshin. I can affirm, too, from their conversation, that the Cánaras, like most other southern tribes, have not followed the ill example of Bengal, and the provinces adjacent to it, in pronouncing the Sanscrit language in the same inelegant manner with their own provincial dialects.

TAILANGA, Télingah, or Tilanga, is at once the name of a nation, of its language, and of the character in which that language is written. Though the province of Telingana alone retain the name in published maps of India, yet the adjacent provinces on either bank of Crishna and Godaveri, and those situated on the north-eastern coast of the peninsula, are undoubtedly comprehended within the ancient limits of Tilanga, and are inhabited chiefly by people of this tribe. The language, too, is widely spread: and many circumstances indicate that the Tailangas formerly occupied a very extensive tract, in which they still constitute the principal part of the population. The character in which they write their own language is taken from Dévanágari, and the Tailanga Brahmens employ it in writing the Sanfertt tongue, from which the Tailanga idiom is faid to have borrowed more largely than other dialects used in the fouth of India. This language appears to have been cultivated by poets, if not by profe writers; for the Tailangas possess many compositions in their own provincial dialect, some of which are said to record the ancient history of the country.

The province of Gúrjara* does not appear to have been at any time much more extensive than the modern Guzrát, although Bráhmanas, distinguished by the name of that country, be now spread over the adjoining provinces on both sides of the Nermadá. This tribe uses a language denominated from their own appellation, but very nearly allied to the Hindí tongue, while the character in which it is written conforms almost exactly with vulgar Nágarí. Considering the situation of their country, and the analogy of language and writing, I cannot hesitate in thinking, that the Gurjaras should be considered as the sifth northern nation of India, and the Uriyas should be ranked among the tribes of the Dacshin.

Brief and imperfect as is this account of the Prácrits of India, I must be still more concise in speaking of the languages denominated Mågad'hi and Apabhransa, in the passages quoted at the beginning of this essay. Under these names are comprehended all those dialects which, together with the Prácrits above noticed, are generally known by the common appellation of Bháshá, or speech. This term, as employed by all philologists from Pa'n'ini down to the prefent professors of grammar, does, indeed, fignify the popular dialect of Sanferit, in contradictinction to the obsolete dialect of the Véda; but in common acceptation, Bhakha (for so the word is pronounced on the banks of the Ganges) denotes any of the modern vernacular dialects of India, especially such as are corrupted from the Sanscrit: these are very nu-After excluding mountaineers, who are probably aborigines of India, and whose languages have certainly no affinity with Sanfcrit, there yet remain in the mountains and islands contiguous to India, many tribes that feem to be degenerate Hindus;

^{*} The limits of Gúrjara, as here indicated, are too narrow. It seems to have been co-extensive with the ancient rather than the modern Guzrát, and to have included the whole, or the greatest part, of Candesh and Malwa.

they have certainly retained fome traces of the language and writing which their ancestors had been

taught to employ.

WITHOUT passing the limits of Hindustán, it would be easy to collect a copious list of disserent dialects in the various provinces which are inhabited by the ten principal Hindu nations. The extensive region which is nearly defined by the banks of the Sarafwati and Gangá on the north, and which is strictly limited by the shores of the eastern and western scas towards the fouth, contains fifty-feven provinces according fome lifts, and eighty-four according to others. Each of these provinces has its peculiar dialect, which appears, however, in most instances, to be a variety only of some one among the ten principal idioms. Thus Hindustani, which seems to be the lineal descendant of the Cányacubja, comprises numerous dialects from the Orduzeban, or language of the royal camp and court, to the barbarous jargon which re-ciprocal mistakes have introduced among European gentlemen and their native fervants. The tongue, under its more appropriate denomination of Hindi, comprehends many dialects strictly local and provincial. They differ in the proportion of Arabick, Persian, and Sanforit, either pure or slightly corrupted, which they contain; and some shades of difference may be also found in the pronunciation, and even in the basis of each dialect.

Nor being susticiently conversant with all these idioms, I shall only mention two, which are well known, because lyric poets have employed them in songs, that are still the delight of natives of all ranks. I allude to the Penjavi, and to the Brij-bhákhá. The sirst is the language of Panchanada, or Penjáb, a province watered by the five celebrated rivers which fall into the Sind'hu. The songs entitled Khiál's and Teppas, which are no doubt samiliar to all who have a taste for the vocal music of India, are composed

almost exclusively in this dialect; as the Dhurpeds and regular Rags are in Hindi, and Rékhtah,* in the

language of the court of Hindustán.

The Brij-bhákhá, or Vraja-bhájhá, is the dialect supposed to have been anciently spoken among the peasants in the neighbourhood of Mat'hura. It derives its name from the cowpens (Vraja) and dairies in the sorest of Vrindá, where Crishna was educated among the wives and daughters of the cow-herds. His amorous adventures with Ra'd'ha' and the Gópis, surnish the subject of many savourite songs in this dialect. It is still spoken with much purity throughout a great part of the Antarbéd, or Dóáb, and in some districts on the opposite banks of the Yamuna and Gangá.

To these cursory observations might be fitly added a specimen of each language, and of the character in which it is written, together with a list of the most common terms in the various dialects of India, compared with words of similar sound and import in the ancient languages of Europe. I have, indeed, made collections for this purpose; but the insertion of a copious list would exceed the limits of a desultory essay. For this reason, and because the collection is yet incomplete, I suppress it; and shall here close the present essay abruptly, with the intention of resuming the subject, should the further prosecution of these enquiries at any future time enable me to surnish the information called for by this Society, concerning the number of Hinduwi dialects, and the countries where they are spoken.

Q4 ON

^{*} The author of the Tezcarch Shuara Hind explains Rethick as signifying any poetry composed in the language of the royal court of Hindustan, but in the style and metre of Persian poetry.

VIII.

ON THE

Religious Ceremonies of the HINDUS, and of the BRA'MENS especially.

By H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

ESSAY II.

A former essay on this subject* described the daily ablutions performed with prayers and acts of religion by every Bráhmen. His next daily duty is the performance of the five great sacraments. The first, consisting in the study of the Véda, has been already noticed; the sacraments of the manes, of deities, and of spirits, slightly touched upon in the first essay, will be made the subject of the present one; and the hospitable reception of guests will be followed in the next, by a description of the various ceremonies which must be celebrated at different periods from the birth to the marriage of a Hindu.

The facrament of deities consists in oblations to fire, with prayers addressed to various divinities; and it is exclusive of the offerings of persumes and blossoms before idols. It does not fall within my present plan to describe the manner in which the several sects of *Hindus*[†] adore their gods, or the images of them; and I shall therefore restrict myself to explain the oblations to fire, and then proceed to describe suneral rites and commemorative obsequies, together with the daily offerings of sood and water to the manes of ancestors.

I am

Asiatic Researches, vol. v. p. 345.
 † See note A.

I AM guided by the author now before me* in premifing the ceremony of confecrating the fire, and of hallowing the facrificial implements; "because this ceremony is, as it were, the ground-work of all religious acts."

First, the priest smears with cow-dung a level piece of ground four cubits square, free from all impurities, and sheltered by a shed. Having bathed and sipped water, he sits down with his face towards the east, and places a vessel of water with cusa grasst on his left; then dropping his right knee, and resting on the span of his left hand, he draws with a roop of cusa grass a line one span, or twelve fingers long, and directed towards the east. From the nearest extremity of this line, he draws another at right angles to it, twenty-one fingers long, and directed towards the north. Upon this line he draws three others, parallel to the first, equal to it in length, and distant seven fingers from each other. The first line is really, or figuratively, made a yellow line, and is facred to the earth; the second is red, and facred to fire; the third black, and facred to BRAHMA', the creator; the fourth blue, and facred to INDRA, the regent of the firmament; the fifth white, and facred to Soma. He next gathers up the dust from the edges of these lines, and throws it away towards the north-east, saying, "What was [herein]

^{*} In the former essay, my chief guide was Hela'yud'ha, who has given very perspicuous explanations of the mantras (or prayers used at religious ceremonies) in several treatises, particularly in one entitled Bramaná-servaswa. In the present essay, I likewise use writual composed by Buayadu'ya for the use of Samavédi priests, and a commentary on the mantras by Gun'a Vish'au, as also the A'charachandricá, (a treatise on religious ceremonies observed by Sudras, but including many of those performed by other classes,) and the Acháráders'd, a treatise on daily duties.

[†] Poa Cynosurgides. Kornia. On the new moon of Bhiddra, a sufficient quantity of this sort of grass is provided for use during the whole year.

bad, is cast away:" and he concludes by sprinkling water on the several lines.

Having thus prepared the ground for the reception of the facrificial fire, he takes a lighted ember out of the covered vessel which contains the fire, and throws it away, saying, "I dismiss far away carnivorous fire, may it go to the realm of Yama, bearing sin [hence.]" He then places the fire before him, saying, "Earth! Sky! Heaven!" and adding, "this other [harmless] fire alone remains here; well knowing [its office,] may it convey my oblation to the Gods." He then denominates the fire according to the purpose for which he prepares it, saying, "Fire! thou art named so and so;" and he concludes this part of the ceremony by silently burning a log of wood, one span long, and smeared with clarified butter.

He next proceeds to place the Brahmá, or superintending priest. Upon very solemn occasions, a learned Brahmána does actually discharge the functions of superintending priest; but, in general, a bundle containing fifty blades of cusa grals is placed to reprefent the Brahma. The officiating priest takes up the vessel of water, and walks round the fire, keeping his right fide turned towards it: he then pours water near it, directing the stream towards the east; he spreads cusa grass thereon; and, crossing his right knce over his left without fitting down, he takes up a fingle blade of grass between the thumb and ring finger of his left hand, and throws it away towards the fouth-west corner of the shed, saying, "What was herein bad, is cast away." Next, touching the water, resting the sole of his right soot on his left ankle, and sprinkling the grass with water, he places the Brahmá on it, laying, "Sit on [this] seat until [thy] see [be paid thee.]" The officiating priest then returns by the same road by which he went round the fire; and fitting down again with with his face towards the east, names the earth inaudibly.

If any profane word have been spoken during the preceding ceremony, atonement must now be made by pronouncing this text: "Thrice did Vishn's step, and at three strides traversed the universe: happily was his soot placed on the dusty [earth]." The meaning is, since the earth has been purished by the contact of Vishnu's foot, may she (the earth so purished) atone for any profane word spoken during this ceremony.

Ir it be intended to make oblations of rice mixed with milk, curds and butter, this too is the proper time for mixing them; and the priest afterwards proceeds to name the earth in the following prayer, which he pronounces with a downcast look, resting both hands on the ground: "We adore this earth; "this auspicious and most excellent earth: Do "thou, O fire! resist [our] enemies. Thou dost take [on thee] the power [and office] of other [deities.]"

With blades of cusa grass held in his right hand, he must next strew leaves of the same grass on three sides of the sire, arranging them regularly, so that the tip of one row shall cover the roots of the other. He begins with the eastern side, and at three times strews grass there, to cover the whole space from north to south; and in like manner distributes grass on the southern and western sides. He then blesses the ten regions of space; and rising a little, puts some wood on the sire, with a ladle sull of clarified butter, while he meditates in silence on Brahma, the lord of creatures.

THE

^{*} The fuel used at sacrifices must be wood of the racemiferous fig-tree, the leafy Butea, or the Catechu Mimosa. It should seem, however, that the prickly Adenanthera, or even the Mango, may be used. The wood is cut into small logs, a span long, and not thicker than a man's fist.

The priest then takes up two leaves of cusa grass, and with another blade of the same grass, cuts off the length of a span, saying, " Pure leaves! be sacred to Vishn'u;" and throws them into a vessel of copper, or other metal. Again he takes two leaves of grass, and holding the tips between the thumb and ring finger of his right hand, and the roots between the thumb and ring finger of his left, and croffing his right hand over his left, he takes up clarified butter on the curvature of the grass, and thus filently casts some into the fire three several times. He then fprinkles both the leaves with water, and throws them away. He afterwards sprinkles with water the veffel containing clarified butter, and puts it on the fire and takes it off again three times, and thus concludes the ceremony of hallowing the butter; during the course of which, while he holds the leaves of grass in both hands, he recites this prayer; "May the divine generator, [VISHNU,] purify thee by means of [this] faultless pure leaf; and may the sun do so by means of [his] rays of light! Be this oblation efficacious."

The priest must next hallow the wooden ladle, by thrice turning therein his fore-finger and thumb, describing with their tips the figure of 7 in the inside, and the figure of 9 on the outside of the bowl of the ladle. Then dropping his right knee, he sprinkles water from the palms of his hands on the whole southern side of the fire, from west to east, saying, "Adit! [mother of the Gods] grant me thy approbation." He does the same on the whole western side, from south to north, saying, "Anumati!* grant me thy approbation;" and on the northern side, saying, "Saraswati! grant me thy approbation." And lastly, he sprinkles water all round the fire, while he pronounces this text; "Generous sun!

^{*} The moon wanting a digit of full.

approve this rite; approve the performer of it, that he may share its reward. May the celestial luminary, which purifies the intellectual soul, purify our minds. May the lord of speech make our prayers acceptable."

Holding cusa grass in both hands, he then recites an expiatory prayer, which will be inferted in another place; and throwing away the grass, he thus finishes the hallowing of the sacrificial implements: a ceremony which necessarily precedes all other religious rites.

HE next makes oblations to fire, with such ceremonics, and in such form, as are adapted to the religious rite which is intended to be subsequently performed. The sacrifice, with the three mysterious words, usually precedes and follows the particular sacrifice which is suited to the occasion; being most generally practifed, it will be the most proper specimen of the form in which oblations are made.

HAVING filently burnt a log of wood smeared with clarified butter, the priest makes three oblations, by pouring each time a ladle full of butter on the fire, saying, "Earth! be this oblation efficacious:" "Sky! be this oblation efficacious:" "Theaven! be this oblation efficacious." On some occasions he makes a sourth offering in a similar mode, saying, "Earth! Sky! Heaven! be this oblation efficacious." If it be requisite to offer a mixture of rice, milk, curds and butter, this is now done, and the oblations, accompanied with the names of the three worlds, are repeated.

As another instance of oblations to fire, the facrifice to the nine planets may deserve notice. This consists of nine oblations of clarified butter, with the following prayers:

1. "THE divine sun approaches with his golden car, returning alternately with the shades of night, rousing mortal and immortal beings, and surveying

- "worlds: May this oblation to the folar planet be efficacious."
- 2. "Gods! produce that [Meon] which has no fee, which is the fon of the folar orb, and became the offspring of space, for the benefit of this world; produce it for the advancement of know-ledge, for protection from danger, for vast supremacy, for empire, and for the take of INDRA's organs of sense: May this oblation to the lunar planet be efficacious."
- 3. "This gem of the sky, whose head resembles fire, is the lord of waters, and replenishes the seeds of the earth: May this oblation to the planet Mars be efficacious."
- 4. "Be roused, O fire! and thou [O Bud'ha!]
 Fere est this facrificial rite, and affociate with us;
 Fet this votary and all the Gods sit in this most
 excellent assembly. May this oblation to the plafet met Mercury be efficacious."
- 5. "O VRIHASPATI, sprung from eternal truth, confer on us abundantly that various wealth which the most venerable of beings may revere; which shines gloriously amongst all people, which ferves to defray sacrifices, which is preserved by strength. May this oblation to the planet Jupiter be efficacious."
- 6. "The lord of creatures drank the invigorating feffence distilled from food; he drank milk and the juice of the moon plant. By means of scripture,
- * According to one legend, a ray of the sun, called sushumna, became the moon; according to another, a flash of light from the eye of Atri was received by space, a goddess; she conceived, and bore Sóma, who is therefore called a son. Atri. This legend may be found in the Harivans'a. Ca'lida'sa alludes to it in the Raghuvans'a, (b. 2. v. 75) comparing Sudacshin'a', when she conceived Raghu, to the via lacter receiving the luminary which sprung from the eye of Atri.

"ture, which is truth itself, this beverage thus quaffdefence ed became a prolific essence, the eternal organ of
universal perception, INDRA's organs of sense, the
milk of immortality, and honey to the manes of
ancestors: May this oblation to the planet Venus
be efficacious."

- 7. "May divine waters be auspicious to us for accumulation, for gain, and for refreshing draughts; may they listen to us, that we may be associated with good auspices: May this oblation to the planet Saturn be essentially."
- 8. "O Du'RVA',* which dost germinate at every knot, at every joint, multiply us through a hundred, through a thousand descents: May this oblation to the planet of the ascending node be efficacious."
- 9. "BE thou produced by dwellers in this world to give knowledge to ignorant mortals, and wealth to the indigent, or beauty to the ugly: May this be oblation to the planet of the descending node be efficacious."

I now proceed to the promifed description of funeral rites, abridging the detail of ceremonies as delivered in rituals, omitting local variations noticed by authors who have treated of this subject, and commonly neglecting the superstitious reasons given by them for the very numerous ceremonies which they direct to be performed in honour of persons recently deceased, or of ancestors long since defunct.

A DYING man, when no hopes of his surviving remain, should be laid upon a hed of cusa grass, either in the house or out of it, if he be a Súdra, but in the open air if he belong to another tribe. When he is at the point of death, donations of cattle, land,

land, gold, filver, or other things, according to his ability, should be made by him; or if he be too weak, by another person in his name. His head should be sprinkled with water drawn from the Ganges, and smeared with clay brought from the same river. A Sálagráma* stone ought to be placed near the dying man; holy strains from the Véda, or from sacred poems, should be repeated aloud in his ears; and leaves of holy basil must be scattered over his head.

When he expires, the corpse must be washed, perfumed, and decked with wreaths of flowers: a bit of tutaneg, another of gold, a gem of any fort, and a piece of coral, should be put into the mouth of the corpse; and bits of gold in both nostrils, both eyes, and both ears. A cloth, perfumed with fragrant oil, must be thrown over the corpse, which the nearest relations of the deceased must then carry with modest deportment to some holy spot in the forest, or near water. The corpse must be preceded by fire, and by food carried in an unbaked earthen veffel; and rituals direct that it shall be accompanied by music of all forts, drums, cymbals, and wind and stringed instruments. This practice seems to be now disused in most provinces of Hindustán: but the necessity of throwing a cloth over the corpse, however poor the

^{*} The Sálagrámas are black stones, found in a part of the Gándací river, within the limits of Népál. They are mostly round, and are commonly perforated in one or more places by worms, or, as the Hindus believe, by Vishn'u in the shape of a reptile. According to the number of perforations, and of spiral curves in each, the stone is supposed to contain Vishn'u in various characters. For example, such a stone perforated in one place only, with four spiral curves in the perforation, and with marks resembling a cow's foot, and a long wreath of flowers, contains Lacshmi' na'-raa'yan'a. In like manner stones are found in the Nermadá, near Uncár mándátiá, which are considered as types of Si'va, and are called Bán-ling. The Sálagráma is found, upon trial, not to be calcareous: it strikes fire with steel, and scarcely at all effervesces with acid.

the relations of the deceased may be, is enforced by the strictest injunctions: it is generally the perquisite

of the priest who officiates at the funeral.*

THE corpse is carried out by the southern gate of the 'own, if the deceased were a Súdra; by the western, if he were a Bráhmaha; by the northern, if he belonged to the military class; and by the eastern portal, if he forung from the mercantile tribe. Should the road pass through any inhabited place, a circuit must be made to avoid it; and when the procession has reached its destination, after once halting by the way, the corpse must be gently laid with the head towards the fouth on a bed of cusa, the tips whereof are pointed fouthward. The fons, or other relations, of the deceased, having bathed in their clothes, must next prepare the funeral pile with a sufficient quantity of fuel, on a clean spot of ground, after marking lines thereon, to confecrate it in a mode fimilar to that which is practifed in preparing a fire for facrifices and oblations. They must asterwards wash the corpse, meditating on Gayá, and other sacred places, holy mountains, the field of the Curus, the rivers Gangá, Yamuná, Cauficí, Chandrabhágá, Bhadráva-cúsá, Gand'ací, Sárayú, and Nermadá; Vainava, Varáha, and Pin'dáraca; and all other holy places on the face of the earth, as well as the four oceans them felves.

Some of these ceremonies are only observed at the obsequies of a priest who maintained a consecrated fire; his funeral pile must be lighted from that fire: but at the obsequies of other persons, the carrying of food to be lest by the way, and the consecration of the spot whereon the suneral pile is raised, must be omitted, and any unpolluted fire may be used:

Vol. VII.

^{*} In most parts of India, the priests who officiate at funerals, are held in disesteem; they are distinguished by various appellations, as Mahábráhmen, &c. See Digest of Hindu Law, Vol. II. p. 175

It is only necessary to avoid taking it from another funeral pile, or from the abode of an outcast, of a man belonging to the tribe of executioners, of a woman who has lately borne a child, or of any person who is unclean.

AFTER washing the corpse, clothing it in clean. apparel, and rubbing it with perfumes, such as sandal-wood, saffron, or aloe-wood, the relations of the deceased place the corpse supine, with its head towards the north, (or re-supine, if it be the body of a woman,) on the funeral pile, which is previously decorated with strung and unstrung flowers. A cloth must be thrown over it; and a relation of the deceased, taking up a lighted brand, must invoke the holy places above-mentioned, and fay, "May the Gods with flaming mouths burn this corpse!" He then walks thrice round the pile with his right hand towards it, and fhifts the facrificial cord to his right Then looking towards the fouth, and fhoulder. dropping his left knee to the ground, he applies the fire to the pile near the head of the corpse, saying, Namó! namah!" while the attending priests recite the following prayer: " Fire! thou wert lighted by him; may he therefore be re-produced from thee, that he may attain the region of celestial bliss. May this offering be auspicious." This, it may be remarked, supposes the funeral pile to be lighted from the facrificial fire kept up by the deceased. The same prayer is, however, used at the funeral of a man who had no consecrated hearth.

The fire must be so managed, that some bones may remain for the subsequent ceremony of gathering the ashes. While the pile is burning, the relations of the deceased take up seven pieces of wood, a span long, and cut them severally with an axe over the fire-brands, (after walking each time round the suneral pile,) and then throw the pieces over their shoulders upon the fire, saying, "Salutation to thee who dost consume sless."

THE

Fire body of a young child under two years old must not be burnt, but buried. It is decked with wreaths of fragrant slowers, and carried out by the relations, who bury it in a clean spot, saying, Namó! namah!" while a priest chants the song of YAMA. The offspring of the sun, day after day setching cows, horses, human beings, and cattle, is no more satiated therewith than a drunkard with wine."

When funeral rites are performed for a person who died in a foreign country, or whose bones cannot be found, a figure is made with three hundred and sixty seaves of the Butea, or as many woollen threads distributed so as to represent the several parts of the human body, according to a fancied analogy of numbers: round the whole must be tied a thong of leather from the hide of a black antelope, and over that a woollen thread; it is then smeared with barley meal, mixed with water, and must be burnt as an emblem of

the corpse.

AFTER the body of the deceased has been burnt in the mode above-mentioned, all who have touched or followed the corpse, must walk round the pile, keeping their left hands towards it, and taking care not to look at the fire. They then walk in procession according to feniority, to a river, or other running water, and, after washing, and again putting on their apparel, they advance into the stream. They then ask the deceased's brother-in-law, or some other perfon able to give the proper answer, "Shall we prefent water?" If the deceased were an hundred years old, the answer .must be simply, "Do so:" but if he were not so aged, the reply is, "Do so; but do not repeat the oblation." Upon this they all shift the facerdotal string to the right shoulder, and looking towards the fouth, and being clad in a fingle garment without a mantle, they ftir the water with the ring finger of the left hand, faving, "Waters, purify us." With the same singer of the right hand they R 2

throw up some water towards the south, and, after plunging once under the surface of the river, they rub themselves with their hands. An oblation of water must be next presented from the joined palms of the hands, naming the deceased, and the family from which he sprung, and saying, "May this oblation reach thee." If it be intended to show particular honour to the deceased, three offerings of water may be thus made.

AFTER finishing the usual libations of water to satisfy the manes of the deceased, they quit the river, and shift their wet clothes for other apparel: they then sip water without swallowing it; and sitting down on the soft turs, alleviate their forrow by the recital of the following or other suitable moral sentences, refraining, at the same time, from tears and lamentation.

1. "FOOLISH is he who feeks permanence in the "human state; unfolid like the stem of the plantain "tree; transient like the foam of the sea."

2. "WHEN a body, formed of five elements, to receive the reward of deeds done in its own former
person, reverts to its five original principles, what
room is there for regret?"

3. "The earth is perishable; the ocean, the Gods themselves, pass away: how should not that bubble, mortal man, meet destruction?"

"4. All that is low, must finally perish; all that is elevated, must ultimately fall; all compound bosies must end in dissolution; and life is concluded with death."

5. "UNWILLINGLY do the manes of the deceased taste the tears and rhoun shed by their kinsmen; then do not wail, but diligently perform the observations of the dead."

Fire body of a young child under two years old must not be burnt, but buried. It is decked with wreaths of fragrant slowers, and carried out by the relations, who bury it in a clean spot, saying, Namó! namah!" while a priest chants the song of YAMA. The offspring of the sun, day after day setching cows, horses, human beings, and cattle, is no more satiated therewith than a drunkard with wine."

When funeral rites are performed for a person who died in a foreign country, or whose bones cannot be found, a figure is made with three hundred and sixty seaves of the Butea, or as many woollen threads distributed so as to represent the several parts of the human body, according to a fancied analogy of numbers: round the whole must be tied a thong of leather from the hide of a black antelope, and over that a woollen thread; it is then smeared with barley meal, mixed with water, and must be burnt as an emblem of

the corpse.

AFTER the body of the deceased has been burnt in the mode above-mentioned, all who have touched or followed the corpse, must walk round the pile, keeping their left hands towards it, and taking care not to look at the fire. They then walk in procession according to feniority, to a river, or other running water, and, after washing, and again putting on their apparel, they advance into the stream. They then ask the deceased's brother-in-law, or some other perfon able to give the proper answer, "Shall we prefent water?" If the deceased were an hundred years old, the answer .must be simply, "Do so:" but if he were not so aged, the reply is, "Do so; but do not repeat the oblation." Upon this they all shift the facerdotal string to the right shoulder, and looking towards the fouth, and being clad in a fingle garment without a mantle, they ftir the water with the ring finger of the left hand, faving, "Waters, purify us." With the same singer of the right hand they R 2

which have been offered, must be thrown into the water. This part of the ceremony is then concluded by wiping the ground, and offering thereon a lamp, water, and wreaths of slowers, naming the deceased with each oblation, and saying, "May this be acceptable to thee."

In the evening of the same day, water and milk must be suspended in earther vessels before the door in honour of the deceased, with this address to him, 55 Such a one, deceased! bathe here—drink this:" and the same ceremony may be repeated every evening

until the period of mourning expire.

When the persons who attended the funeral return home, and approach the house door, (before the ceremony of suspending water and milk, but after the other rites above-mentioned,) they each bite three leaves of Nimba* between their teeth, fip water, and touch a branch of Samit with their right hands. while the priest says, "May the Sami tree atone for fins." Each mourner then touches fire, while the priest says, " May fire grant us happiness; and standing between a bull and a goat, touches both those animals, while the priest recites an appropriate prayer. Then, after touching the tip of a blade of Durvá grass, a piece of coral, some clarified butter, water, cow-dung, and white mustard-feed, or rubbing his head and limbs with the butter and mustard-seed, each man stands on a stone, while the priest says for him, "May I be firm like this stone;" and thus he enters his house.

During ten days, funeral cakes, together with libations of water and tila, must be offered as on the first day, augmenting, however, the number each time, so that ten cakes, and as many libations of

water

[•] Melia Azadirachta, LINN.

[†] Adenanthera aculeata, or Prosopis aculeata.

¹ I must, for the present, omit it, because it is not exhibited at full length in any work I have yet consulted.

water and tila, be offered on the tenth day, and with this further difference, that the address varies each time. On the second day the prayer is, " May this fecond cake, which shall restore thy ears, eyes, and nose,, be acceptable." On the third day, "This third cake, which shall restore thy throat, arms, and breast." On the fourth, "Thy navel and organs of excretion;" on the fifth, "Thy knees, legs, and feet;" on the fixth, "All thy vitals:" on the feventh, " All thy veins:" on the eighth, " Thy teeth, nails, and hair:" on the ninth, " Thy manly strength:" on the tenth, " May this tenth cake, which shall fully fatisfy the hunger and thirst of thy renewed body, be acceptable to thee." During this period, a pebble, wrapt up in a fragment of the deceased's shroud, is worn by the heir suspended on his neck. To that pebble, as a type of the deceased, the funeral cakes are offered. The fame vessel in which the first oblation was made, must be used throughout the period of mourning: this vessel, therefore, is also carried by the heir in the fragment of the shroud. He uses that slip of cloth taken from the winding-sheet, as a sacrificial cord, and makes the obtations every day on the fame spot: should either the vessel or the pebble be loft by any accident, the offerings must be re-commenced.

Is the mourning last three days only, ten funeral cakes must be nevertheless offered; three on the first and third days, and four on the second: if it lasts no more than one day, the ten oblations must be made at once.

ALL the kinfmen of the deceased within the fixth degree of confanguinity, should fast for three days and nights, or one at the least; however, if that be impracticable, they may eat a single meal at night, purchasing the food ready prepared, but on no account preparing victuals at home. So long as the mourning lasts, the nearest relations of the deceased must not exceed one daily meal, nor eat sless.

meat, nor any food feasoned with factitious salt: they must use a plate made of the leaves of any tree but the plantain, or else take their food from the hands of some other persons: they must not handle a knife, or any other implement made of iron; nor sleep upon a bedstead; nor adorn their persons, but remain squalid, and refrain from persumes, and other gratifications: they must likewise omit the daily ceremonies of ablution and divine worship. On the third and fifth days, as also on the seventh and ninth, the kinsmen assemble, bathe in the open air, offer tila and water to the deceased, and take a repast together: they place lamps at cross roads, and in their own houses, and likewise on the way to the cemetery; and they observe vigils in honour of the deceased.

On the last day of mourning, or earlier, in those countries where the obsequies are expedited on the second or third day, the nearest kinsman of the deceased gathers his ashes after offering a sráddha

fingly for him. .

In the first place, the kinsman smears with cowdung the spot where the oblation is to be presented; and after washing his hands and feet, sipping water, and taking up cusa grass in his hand, he sits down on a cushion pointed towards the fouth, and placed upon a blade of cusa grass, the tip of which must also point towards the fouth. He then places near him a bundle of cusa grass, consecrated by pronouncing the word namah! or else prepares a fire for oblations; then, lighting a lamp with clarified butter, or with oil of sesamum, and arranging the food, and other things intended to be offered, he must sprinkle himself with water, meditating on Visher'u, furnamed the Lotos-eyed, or revolving in his mind this verse, " Whether pure or defiled, or wherever he may have gone, he, who remembers the being. whose eyes are like the lotos, shall be pure, externally and internally." Shifting the facerdotal cord his

his right shoulder, he takes up a brush of cusa grass. and presents water, together with tila and with blosfoms, naming the deceased, and the family from which he sprung, and faying, " May this water for ablutions be acceptable to thee." Then faying, "May this be right," he pronounces a vow, or solemn declaration. "This day I will offer on a bundle of cusa grass, (or, if such be the custom, "on fire,") a śrádd ha for a fingle person, with unboiled food, together with clarified butter, and with water, preparatory to the gathering of the bones of such a one deceased." The priests answering, "Do so," he says, " Namó! namah!" while the priests meditate the gáyatrí, and thrice repeat, "Salutation to the Gods, to the manes of ancestors, and to mighty faints; to Swáhá, [goddess of fire;] to Swad'há, [the food of the manes:] falutation unto them for ever and ever."

HE then presents a cushion made of cusa grass, naming the deceased, and faying, "May this be acceptable unto thee;" and afterwards distributes meal of sesamm, while the priests recite, "May the demons and sierce giants, that sit on this consecrated spot, be dispersed; and the blood-thirsty savages that inhabit the earth, may they go to any other place to which their inclinations may lead them."

PLACING an oval vessel with its narrowest end towards the south, he takes up two blades of grass; and breaking off a span's length, throws them into the vessel; and, after sprinkling them with water, makes a libation, while the priests say, "May divine waters be auspicious to us for accumulation, for grain, and for refreshing draughts; may they listen to us, and grant that we may be associated with good auspices." He then throws in tila, while the priests say, "Thou art tila, sacred to Sóma; framed by the divinity, thou dost produce celestial bliss, [for him that makes oblations;] mixed

with water, may thou long fatisfy our ancestors with the food of the manes; be this oblation efficacious." He afterwards filently casts into the vessel persumes, slowers, and Durvá grass. Then taking up the vessel with his left hand, putting two blades of grass on the cushion, with their tips pointed to the north, he must pour the water from the argha thereon. The priests meantime recite, "The waters in heaven, in the atmosphere, and on earth, have been united [by their sweetness] with milk: may those filver waters, worthy of oblation, be auspicious, salutary, and exhilerating to us; and be happily offered: may this oblation be efficacious." He adds, "namah;" and pours out the water, naming the deceased, and faying, "May this argha be acceptable unto thee." Then oversetting the vessel, and arranging in due order the unboiled rice, condiments, clarified butter, and other requifites, he scatters tila, while the priests recite, "Thrice did Vishn'u step, &c." He next offers the rice, clarified butter, water, and condiments, while he touches the vessel with his left hand, and names the deceased, saying, " May this raw food, with clarified butter and condiments, together with water, be acceptable unto thee." After the priests have repeated the Gáyatri, preceded by the names of the worlds, he pours honey, or fugar, upon the rice, while they recite this prayer; "May the winds blow fweet, the rivers flow sweet, and salutary herbs be fweet, unto us: may night be fweet; may the mornings pass sweetly; may the soil of the earth, and heaven parent [of all productions] be fweet unto us: may [Sóma] king of herbs and trees be sweet: may the sun be sweet, may kine be fweet unto us." He then fays, " Namó! namah!" while the priests recite, "Whatever may be deficient in this food, whatever may be impersect in this rite, whatever may be wanting in its form, may all that become faultless." He should then feed the Bráhmahas, whom he has assembled, either silently distributing food among them, or adding a respectful invitation to them to them. When he has given them water to rince their mouths, he may consider the deceased as fed through their intervention. The priests again recite the Gáyatrí, and the prayer, "May the winds blow sweet," &c. and add the subjoined prayers, which should be followed by the music of slagelets, lutes, drums, &c.

1. THE embodied spirit, which hath a thousand heads, a thousand eyes, a thousand feet, stands in the human breast, while he totally pervades the earth. 2. That being is this universe, and all that has been, or will be; he is that which grows by nourishment, and he is the distributor of immorta-Aty. 3. Such is his greatness, and therefore is he the most excellent embodied spirit: the elements of the universe are one portion of him; and three portions of him are immortality in heaven. 4. That three-fold being rose above [this world;] and the fingle portion of him remained in this universe, which consists of what does, and what does not, taste [the reward of good and bad actions:] again he pervaded the universe. 5. From him sprung VIRA'J; * from whom [the first] man was produced: and he, being fuccessively re-produced, peopled the earth. 6. From that fingle portion, furnamed the universal sacrifice, was the holy oblation butter and cuids produced; and this did frame all cattle, wild or domestic, which are governed by inflinct. 7. From that universal facrifice were produced the strains of the Rich and Saman; from him the facred metres fprung; from him did the Yajush proceed. 8. From him were produced horfes, and all beafts that have two rows of teeth; from him fprung cows; from him proceeded goats and theep. 9. Him the Gods, the demi-gods, named Sál'hya,

and the holy fages, immolated as a victim on facred grass; and thus performed a solemn act of religion. 10. Into how many portions did they divide this being, whom they immolated? What did his mouth become? What are his arms, his thighs, and his feet now called? 11. His mouth became a priest; his arm was made a foldier; his thigh was transformed into a husbandman; from his feet sprung the fervile man. 12. The moon was produced from his mind, the fun sprung from his eye; air and breath proceeded from his ear; and fire rose from his mouth. 13. The fubtile element was produced from his navel; the sky from his head; the earth from his feet; and space from his ear: thus did he frame worlds. 14. In that folemn facrifice which the Gods performed with him as a victim, spring. was the butter, fun mer the fuel, and fultry weather the oblation. 15. Seven were the moats surrounding the altar; thrice feven were the logs of holy fuel, at that facrifice which the Gods performed, immolating this being as the victim. 16. By that facrifice the Gods worshipped this victim. such were prineval duties; and thus did they attain heaven, where former Gods and mighty demi-gods abide.*

Next spreading cusa grass near the fragments of the repath, and taking some unboiled rice, with tila and clarified butter, he must distribute it on the grass, while the priests recite so him these prayers: "May those in my family, who have been burnt by fire, or who are alive, and yet unburnt, be satisfied with this food presented on the ground; and proced contented towards the supreme path sof eternal blass. May those who have no father nor mother, nor kinsman, nor food, nor supply of nourishment,

^{*} I think it unnecessary to quote from the commentary, the explanation of this curious passage of the Véda as it is there given, Lecause it does not really elucidate the sense; the allegory is, for the most part, sufficiently obvious. Other prayers may be also recited on the same occasion: it would be tedious to insert them all in this place.

be contented with this food offered on the ground, and attain, like it, a happy abode." He then gives the Bráhmahas water to rince their mouths; and the priests once more recite the Gáyatrí, and the prayer, "May the winds blow sweet," &c.

THEN taking in his left hand another veffel, containing tila bloffoms and water, and in his right a brush made of cusa grass, he sprinkles water over the grass spread on the consecrated spot, naming the deceased, and saying, " May this ablution be acceptable to thec." He afterwards takes a cake or ball of food, mixed with clarified butter, and presents it, faying, "May this cake be acceptable to thee;" and deals out the food with this prayer, " Ancestors, rejoice; take your respective shares, and be strong as bulls." Then walking round by the left, to the northern fide of the confecrated spot, and meditating, "Ancestors, be glad; take your respective shares, and be strong as bulls:" he returns by the same road, and again sprinkles water on the ground, to wash the oblation, faying, "May this ablution be acceptable to thee."

NEXT, touching his hip with his elbow, or elfe his right fide, and having fipped water, he must make fix libations of water with the hollow palms of his hand, saying, "Salutation unto thee, O deceased; and unto the saddening [hot] season; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and unto the month of tapas, [or dewy season;] salutation unto thee, O deceased, and unto that [leason] which abounds with water; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to the nestar [of biossoms;] salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to the terrible and angry [season;] salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to the terrible and to semale say, [or the fultry season.]"*

HE next offers a thread on the funeral cake, holding the wet brush in his hand, naming the deceased,

and faying, "May this raiment be acceptable to thee:" the priests add, "Fathers, "this apparel is offered unto you." He then filently strews perfumes, blossoms, refin and betel leaves on the funeral cake, and places a lighted lamp on it. He fprinkles water on the bundle of grass, saying, May the waters be auspicious;" and offers rice, adding, "May the bloffons be fweet; may the rice be harmless;" and then pours water on it, naming the deceased, and saying, "May this sood and drink be acceptable unto thee." In the next place he strews grass over the funeral cake, and sprinkles water on it, reciting this prayer; "Waters! ye are the food of our progenitors; fatisfy my parents, ve who convey nourifliment, which is ambrofia, butter, milk, cattle, and distilled liquor."* Lastly, he smells fome of the food, and poifes in his hand the funeral cakes, faying, " May this ball be wholesome food;" and concludes by paying the officiating priest his fee, with a formal declaration. "I do give this fee (confisting of so much money) to such a one, (a priest sprung from such a family, and who uses such a Véda, and such a súc há of it,) for the purpose of fully completing the obsequies this day performed by me in honour of one person singly, preparatory to the gathering of the boncs of fuch a one deceased."

Agree the priest has thrice said, "Salutation to the Gods, to progenitors, to mighty saints, &c." he dismisses him; lights a lamp in honour of the deceased; meditates on Herr with undiverted attention; casts the food, and other things used at the obsequies,

^{*} The former translation of this text (As. Res. vol. V. p. 367) was erroneous in several places; and I still am not perfectly confident that I rightly understand it. The term (cilála) which the commentator explains as signifying cattle, literally means fit to be tied to a pole or stake. The reading of the next term was erroneous. I read and translated paris'ruta for parisruta; promised instead of distilled. The commentator explains it as signifying the nourishment of progenitors.

obsequies, into the fire; and then proceeds to the cemetery, for the purpose of gathering the ashes of the deceased.

THE son, or nearest relation, of the defunct, accompanied by his kinsmen, and clothed in clean apparel, repairs to the cemetery, carrying eight vessels filled with various flowers, roots, and similar things. When arrived there, he does honour to the place, by presenting an argha with persumes, blosfoms, fragrant refins, a lamp, &c. Some of his kinsmen invoke the deities of the cemetery when the argha is presented; others, when flowers are offered; others again, when food, fragrant refins, a lighted lamp, water, wreaths of flowers, and rice, are offered, faying, "Salutation to the deities, whose mouths are devouring fire." He advances to the northern gate,* or extremity of the funeral pile, fits down there, and presents two vessels as an oblation to spirits, with this prayer, "May the adorable and eternal Gods, who are present in this cemetery. accept from us this eight-fold unperishable oblation: may they convey the deceafed to pleafing and eternal abodes, and grant to us life, health, and perfect ease. This eight-fold oblation is offered to S'IVA, and other deities; falutation unto them." Then walking round the spot with his right side towards it, he successively places two other vessels, containing eight different things, at each of the three other gates or fides of the enclosure which surrounds the funeral pile; and he presents these oblations with the same formality as before, sprinkles them with milk, and adds, "May S'IVA, and the other deities, depart to their respective abodes." He then shifts the sacerdotal ftring to his right fhoulder, turns his face towards the fouth, filently sprinkles the bones and ashes with cow's milk, and, using a branch of Sami, and ano-

^{*} The practice of enclosing the funeral pile with temporary walls is almost universally disused.

ther of Palása,* instead of tongs, fitst draws out from the ashes the bones of the head, and afterwards the other bones fuccessively; sprinkles them with perfumed liquids, and with clarified butter made of cow's milk, and puts them into a casket made of the leaves of the Palása: this he places in a new earthen vessel, covers it with a lid, and ties it up with thread. Choosing some clean spot, where encroachments of the river are not to be apprehended. he digs a very deep hole, and spreads cusa grass at the bottom of it, and over the grass a piece of yellow cloth; he places thereon the earthen vessel containing the bones of the deceased, covers it with a lump of mud, together with thorns, moss and mud; and plants a tree in the excavation, or raises a mound of masonry, or makes a pond, or erects a flandard. He, and the rest of the kinsmen, then bathe in their clothes. At a subsequent time, the son, or other near relation, fills up the excavation, and levels the ground. he throws the afhes of the funeral pile into the water; cleans the fpot with cow-dung and water; prefents oblations to S'IVA, and other deities, in the manner before mentioned; dismisses those deities, and casts the oblation into water. cover the spot where the funeral pile stood, a tree should be planted, or a mound of masonry be raised, or a pond dug, or a standard be creeted. † Again, at a fish-

* Butea frondosa, LINN. and Superba, ROXB.

[†] This does not appear to be very universally practised; but a monument is always erected on the spot where a woman has burnt herself with her husband's corpse, or where any person has died a legal voluntary death. A mausoleum is, however, often built in honour of a Hindu prince or noble; it is called, in the Hindustání language, a Ch'hetrí; and the practice of consecrating a temple in honour of the deceased is still more common, especially in the centrical parts of India. I shall take some future occasion to resume a subject alluded to in this note; but in the mean time it may be fit to remark, that legal suicide was formerly common among the Hindus, and is not now very rare; although instances of men's burning themselves have not perhaps lately occurred so often as their drowning themselves in holy rivers. The blind father and mother of the young anchorite,

subsequent time, the son, or other near relation, carries the bones which were so buried to the river Ganges: he bathes there, rubs the vessel with the sive productions of kine, puts gold, honey, clarified butter and tila on the vessel, and looking towards the south, and advancing into the river, with these words, "Be there salutation unto justice," throws the vessel into the waters of the Ganges, saying, "May he (the deceased) be pleased with me." Again bathing, he stands upright, and contemplates the sun; then sipping water, and taking up cusa grass, tila and water, pays the priests their sees.

So long as mourning lasts after gathering the ashes, the near relations of the deceased continue to offer water with the same formalities and prayers as above-mentioned, and to refrain from fastitious salt, butter, &c. On the last day of mourning, the nearest relation puts on neat apparel, and causes his house and furniture to be cleaned; he then goes out of the town, and, after offering the tenth funeral cake in the manner before described, he makes ten libations of water from the palms of his hands; causes the hair of his head and body to be shaved, and his nails to be cut, and gives the barbers the clothes which Vol. VII.

whom Das'anar'na slew by mistake, burnt themselves with the corpse of their son. The scholiast of the Raghuranda, in which poem, as well as in the RAMAYAN'A, this story is beautifully told, quotes a text of law, to prove that suicide is in such instances le-I cannot refrain from also mentioning, that instances are not unfrequent, where persons afflicted with toathsome and incurable diseases, have caused themselves to be buried alive. I hope soon to be the channel or communicating to the Asiatic Society, a very remarkable case of a leper rescued from a premature grave, and radically cured of his distemper. I must also take this occasion of announcing a very singular practice which prevails among the lowest tribes of the inhabitants of Berar and Gondwana. Suicide is not unfrequently vowed by such persons in return for boons solicited from idols; and, to fulfil his vow, the successful votary throws himself from a precipice named Calabhairava, situated in the mountains between the Tapti and Nermadá rivers. The annual far held near that spot at the beginning of spring, usually witnesses eight or ten victims of this superstition.

were worn at the funeral of the deceased, and adds some other remuneration. He then anoints his head and limbs down to his seet, with oil of selamum, rubs all his limbs with meal of sesamum, and his head with the ground pods of white mustard: he bathes, sips water, touches and blesses various auspicious things, such as stones, clarified butter, leaves of Nimba, white mustard, Durvá grass, coral, a cow, gold, curds, honey, a mirror, and a conch; and also touches a bambu staff. He now returns purified to his home; and thus completes the first obsequies of the deceased.

THE fecond series of obsequies, commencing on the day after the period of mourning has elapsed, is opened by a lustration, termed the consolatory ceremony, the description of which must be here abridged, for want of a commentary to explain all the prayers that are recited at this religious rite: for the same reason an account of the ceremonies attending the consecration and dismissal of a bull in honour of the deceased, must for the present be postponed.

The lustration consists in the consecration of sour vessels of water, and sprinkling therewith the house, the surniture, and the persons, belonging to the samily. After lighting a fire, and blessing the attendant Bráhmanas, the priest fills sour vessels with water, and putting his hand into the first, meditates the gáyatri before and after reciting the sollowing prayers:

1. "May generous waters be auspicious to us, for grain and for refreshing draughts: may they approach towards us, that we may be associated with good auspices." 2. "Earth, afford us ease; be free from thorns; be habitable; widely extended as thou art, procure us happiness." 3. "O, waters! since we afford delight, grant us food, and the rapturous sight [of the Supreme Being]." 4. "Like tender mothers.

mothers, make us here partakers of your most auspicious essence."*

Putting his hand into the second vessel, the priest meditates the gáyatri, and the four prayers above quoted, adding some others, and concluding this second consecration of water by once more meditating the gáyatri.

THEN taking a lump of fugar and a copper veffel in his left hand, biting the fugar, and spitting it out again, the priest fips water: afterwards putting his hand into the third vessel, he meditates the gayatri and the four prayers above cited, interposing this; " May INDRA and VARUN'A [the regents of the sky and of the ocean] accept our oblations, and grant us happiness: may INDRA and the cherishing fun grant us happiness in the distribution of food: may INDRA and the moon grant us the happiness of attaining the road to celestial blis, and the association of good auspices." The priest adds, 1. "May we sufficiently attain your essence with which you fatisfy the universe.—Waters! grant it to us." "May heaven be our comfort; may the sky, earth, water, salutary herbs, trees, the assembled gods, the Creator, and the universe, be our comfort: may that comfort obviate difficulties, and become to us the means of attaining our wishes." 3. " Make me perfect in [my own person, and in the persons of all who are] connected with me: may all beings view me with the [benevolent] eye of the fun: I view all beings with the folar eye; let us view each other with the [benevolent] folar cye." 4. " Make me

^{*}The translation of several among these prayers is a little varied from a former version of them, to conform with the different expositions given in different places by the commentators I have consulted. For the same purpose I shall here subjoin another version of the gáyatri. "Earth! Sky! Heaven! Let us meditate on [these and on] the most excellent light and power of that generous, sportive and resplendent Sun: [praying that] it may guide our intellects." A paraphrase of this very important text may be found in the preface to the translation of Mexic, p. xviii.

me perfect in my own person, and in the persons of all who are allied to me: may I live long in thy fight; long may I live in thy fight." 5. "Salutation to thee [O fire!] who dost feize oblations, to thee who dost shine, to thee who dost scintillate; may thy flames burn our foes: mayft thou, the purifier, be auspicious unto us." 6. "Salutation to thee, manifelted in lightning; falutation to thee, manifested in thunder: salutation to thee, O Gon! for thou dost endeavour to bestow celestial bliss." 7. "Since thou dost feek to awe the wicked [only,] make us fearless; grant happiness to our progeny, and courage to our cattle." 8. " May water and herbs he friendly to us; may they be inimical to him who hates us, and whom we hate." 9. " May we see an hundred years that pure eye which rises from the cast, and benefits the Gods; may we live a hundied years; may we speak a hundred years; may we be free from diffress a hundred years, and again a hundred years." After another prayer, the priest again meditates the gayatri, and thus concludes the third confectation. He then hallows the fourth vefsel of water in a similar manner, with a repetition of the prayer, " May the earth he our comfort, &c." and with some others, which must be here omitted for the reason before-mentioned.*

Though it be not positively enjoined, it is customary, immediately after this lustration, to give away a vessel of tila, and also a cow, for the sake of securing the passage of the deceased over the Vairarahi, or river of hell; whence the cow so given is called Vaitarahi-d'hénu. Afterwards a bed, with its furniture,

^{*} At most religious ceremonies, and especially at the deprecatory rites, the prayers directed in the several Védas, and in the various Súc'hás of them, differ much. Those which are translated in the present and former essays, are mostly taken from the Yajurréda, and may be used by any Bráhmen, instead of the prayers directed in the particular Véda, by which he should regularly be guided. The subject of histrations is curious; they are performed with various ceremonies, to avert calamities, or to obviate disappointments. Should other engagements permit it, this topic will be treated in a future essay.

furniture, is brought, and the giver fits down near the Brahmaha, who has been invited to receive the present: after saying, "Salutation to this bed with its furniture, salutation to this priest, to whom it is given," he pays due honour to the Brahmana in the usual form of hospitality. He then pours water into his hand, saying, " I give thee this bed with its furniture." The priest replies, "Give it." Upon this he sprinkles it with water; and taking up cusa grass, tila and water, delivers them to the priest, pouring the water into his hand with a formal declaration of the gift and its purpose, and again delivers a bit of gold with cusa grass, &c. making a similar formal doclaration. 1. "This day, I, being desirous of obtaining celestial bliss for such a one defunct, do give unto thee, such a one, a Bráhmana, descended from fuch a family, to whom due honour has been shown, this bed and furniture, which has been duly honoured, and which is facred to VISHN'U." 2. "This day I give unto thee (so and so) this gold, sacred to fire, as a sacerdotal fee, for the sake of confirming the donation I have made of this bed and furniture." The Bráhmaha both times replies, "Be it well." Then lying upon the bed, and touching it with the upper part of his middle finger, he meditates the gayatri with suitable prayers, adding, "This bed is sacred to VIEHN'U.

With the same ceremonies, and with similar formal declarations, he next gives away to a Bráhmaha, (or more commonly, in both instances, to a married couple,) a golden image of the deceased; or else a golden idol, or both, with clothes, and various forts of fruit. 'Asterwards he distributes other presents among Bráhmahas; for the greater honour of the deceased; making donations of land, and giving a chair or stool, clothes, water, food, betel leaf, a lamp, gold, silver, a parasol, an orchard of fruit-trees, wreathes of slowers, a pair of shoes, another bed, another miles cow, and any other presents he say.

may choose to give, such as an elephant, a horse, a

carriage, a slave, a house, and so forth.'

It is hardly necessary to remark on this quotation, that none but very rich or superstitious persons, make these ample donations, which are not positively en-

joined, though strenuously recommended,

THERE is some difference in the religious formalities with which various things are given, or accepted, on this or on any other occasion. In the formal declaration, too, a different tutelary deity is named, and a different object is specified; but, in other respects, the form of the declaration is similar, whatever be the occasion on which the gift is made.

In making a donation of land, the donor fits down with his face to the east, opposite to the person to whom he gives it. The donor fays, "Salutation to this land with its produce: falutation to this priest, to whom I give it." Then, after showing him honour in the usual form, he pours water into his hand, saying, "I give thee this land with its produce." The other replies, "Give it." Upon which he sprinkles the place with water; and taking up water, with holy basil, and cusa grass, he pours the water into the other's hand, making a formal declaration of the donation, and the motive of it. He then delivers a bit of gold, with cusa grass, &c. declaring his purpose in giving it. as a facerdotal fee, to confolidate the donation of land. The other accepts the gift by a verbal acknowledgment, and meditates the gayatri with some other prayers.

A CHAIR or stool is accepted by sitting down on it; clothes, by putting them on; a parasol, by holding the handle of it; shoes, or sandals, by standing on them; and a couch, by lying on it. In these and other donations, there is no variation in the prayers: but the gist of a milch cow is made with other texts, which the donor recites standing near the cow, and making a libation of water from the palms of his hands

hands after the recital of each prayer. The gift is

accepted by holding the animal's tail.

1. 66 MAY the Goddess, who is the LACHSMI' of all beings, and resides among the Gods, assume the shape of a milch cow, and procure me comfort." "May the Goddess who is Rudra'n's in a corporeal form, and who is the beloved of Siva, assume the shape of a milch cow, and procure me comfort." "May she, who is Lacusmi reposing on the bosom of Vishn'u; she, who is the Lachsmi of the regent of riches; she, who is the LACHSMI of kings. be a boon-granting cow to me." 4. " May she, who is the Lachsmi of Brahma'; she, who is Swa'ha', the wife of fire; fhe, who is the exerted power of the fun, moon, and stars, assume the shape of a milch cow for [my] prosperity." 5. " Since thou art Swad'há [the food] of them, who are chief among. the manes of ancestors, and Swa'ha' [the consuming power] of them who eat solemn sacrifices; therefore, being the cow that expiates every fin, procure me comfort " 6. " I invoke the Goddess who is endowed with the attributes of all the Gods, who confers all happiness, who bestows [abodes in] all the worlds for the fake of all people." 7. " I pray to that auspicious Goddess for immortality and happinefs."

The remaining ceremonies, omitting, for the prefent, the confectation of a bull, confift chiefly in the
obsequies called frádd'has. The first set of suneral
ceremonies is adapted to esset, by means of oblations, the re-embodying of the soul of the deceased,
after burning his corpsc. The apparent scope of the
second set is to raise his shade from this world
(where it would else; according to the notions of
the Hindus, continue to roam among demons and
evil spirits) up to heaven, and there deisy him, as it
were, among the manes of departed ancestors. For
this end, a frádd'ha should regularly be offered to
the deceased on the day after mourning expires:

S 4

twelve other śrádd'has singly to the deceased in twelve successive months: similar obsequies at the end of the third fortnight, and also in the fixth month, and in the twelfth; and the oblation called Sapihdana, on the first anniversary of his decease. In most provinces, the periods for these sixteen ceremonies, and for the concluding obsequies entitled Sapihdana, are anticipated, and the whole is completed on the second or third day: after which they are again performed at the proper times, but in honour of the whole set of progenitors, instead of the deceased singly. The obsequies intended to raise the shade of the deceased to heaven, are thus completed. Afterwards a śrádd'ha is annually offered to him on the anniversary of his decease.

The form of the various śrádd'has (for they are numerous)* is so nearly the same, that it will be only necessary to describe that which is performed in honour of progenitors in general, and at which three funeral cakes are offered to three paternal ancestors; as many to three maternal fore-sathers; and two to the Viswédévas, or assembled Gods. A śrádd'ha in honour of one person singly has been already noticed.

After

^{*} In a work entitled Nirneya Sind'ha, I find authority for classing obsequies under twelve heads. 1. Daily obsequies, either with food, or with water only, in honour of ancestors in general, but excluding the Vis'wédéva. 2. Obsequies for a special cause; that is, in honour of a kinsman recently defunct. 3. Voluntary obsequies, performed by way of supererogation, for the greater benefit of the deceased. 4. Obsequies for increase of prosperity, performed upon any accession of wealth or prosperity, and upon other joyful occasions. 5. A s'rádd'ha intended to introduce the shade of a deceased kinsman to the rest of the manes. 6. Obsequies performed on appointed days, such as that of new moon, full moon, sun's passage into a new sign, &c. 7. A s'radd'ha to sanctify the food at an entertainment given to a company of reverend persons. 8. One performed when stated numbers of priests are fed at the cost of a person who needs purification from some defilement. 9. A stradd'ha preparatory to the celebration of any solumn rite, and considered as a part of such rite. 10. S'radd'has in honour of deities. 11., Oblations of clarified butter, previous to the undertaking of a distant journey. 12. A stradd'hu to sanctify a meal of flesh meat, prepared simply for the sake of nourishment.

After smearing the place with cow-dung, a square altar of fand is raised on it, one or two fingers high. and a span nearly in each direction. (It must be triangular at the obsequies of one recently defunct.) The person who performs the ceremony, first washies his hands and feet, fips water, and puts a ring of cusa grass on the ring finger of each hand. He fits down on a cushion of cusa grass, or of other materials, placed upon a blade of fuch grass. He lights a lamp, reciting a prayer, which will be cited on another occasion. He places the implements and materials in regular order; and sprinkles water on himself, and all around; meditating on VISHN'U, furnamed the lotos-eyed, and revolving in his mind the couplet. "Whether pure or defiled, &c." He now shifts the facerdotal thread to his right shoulder, and solemnly declares his intention of performing a śrádd'ha, and the motive of it. He thrice meditates the gáyatrí, and pronounces the falutation to superior beings, " Salutation to the Gods, to the manes of anceftors. &c.

AFTER this preparation, he proceeds to invite and to welcome the affembled Gods and the manes. First, he places two little cushions of cusa grass on one fide of the altar for the Viswedevas, and fix in front of it for the Pitris. Each cushion should confift of three blades of grass folded up. After strewing cusa grass on those cushions, he asks, " Shall I invoke the affembled Gods?" Being told, "Do fo," he thus invokes them: " Affembled Gods! hear my invocation; come, and fit down on this holy grass." After scattering barley on the same spot. he meditates this prayer; "Affembled Gods! liften to my invocation, ye, who relide in the fky, and ye who abide near us, [on earth,] or [tar off] in heaven: ye, whose tongues are fire; and ye, who defend the funeral facrifice, fit on the grafs, and be cheerful." He then invites the manes of anceftors with fimilar invocations: "O. hie! zealoufly

we support thee, zealously we feed thee with suel; eagerly do thou call our willing ancestors to taste our oblation." "May our progenitors, who eat the moon plant, who are fanctified by holy fires, come by paths which Gods travel." Satisfied with ancestoral fanctions of the factor for the f tral food at this folemn facrifice, may they applaud and guard us." He next welcomes the Gods and manes with oblations of water, &c. in vessels made of leaves. Two are presented to the Viswedevas, three to paternal ancestors, and as many to maternal fore-fathers. Cusa grass is put into each ves-fel, and water sprinkled on it, while the prayer, May divine waters be auspicious to us, &c." is recited. Barley is thrown into the vessels intended for the Gods, and tila into those intended for the manes of ancestors, with these prayers: 1. "Barley! thou art the separator, feparate [us from] our natural enemies, and from our malicious foes."
2. "Thou art tila, facred to Sóma, &c." At a Sradd'ha for increase of prosperity, which is performed on many occasions as a preparative for a folemn act of religion, barley is thrown into the veffels instead of tila, and the last prayer is thus varied: "Thou art barley, facred to Soma: framed by the divinity, thou dost produce celestial blis: mixt with water, may thou long fatisfy with nourishment my feveral progenitors, whose mouths are full of blessings." The vessels are successively taken up, repeating each time a prayer before cited: "The waters in heaven, in the atmosphere, and on the earth, have been united with milk, &c." The cusa grass, that lay on the vessels, is put into a Bráhmana's hand; and that which was under it, is held by the person

The Via Lactea seems to be meant by the path of the Gods. † Plantain leaves; or else leaves of the Butea frondosa, or of the Bassia lati-folia.

[†] Yara signifies barley: in this text it also signifies separator, being derived from ye, to unmix. Many of the prayers contain similar quibbles.

person who performs the *śrádčha*, in his own hand; and through it he successively pours the water out of each vessel on the *Bráhmaha*'s hand. He then piles up the empty vessels in three sets, and reverses them, saying, while he oversets the first, "Thou art a mansion for ancestors."

Ar the last obsequies for one recently deceased, and which are named the Sapindana, the following prayer is recited when the vessel, which has been offered to him, is piled up with the rest: "May the mansion of those progenitors, who have reached a common abode, and who have accordant minds, foster him: may the blessed facrifice, facred to the Gods, be his." The subjoined prayer, likewise, is peculiar to the Sapindana. "By [the intercession of] those souls who are mine by affinity, who are animated [shades,] who have reached a common abode, who have accordant minds, may prosperity be mine in this world for a hundred years."

The person who persorms the śráddha, next takes up food smeared with clarified butter, and makes two oblations to fire, reciting these prayers: 1. "May this oblation to fire, which conveys offerings to the manes, be efficacious. 2. "May this oblation to the moon, wherein the progenitors of mankind abide, be

efficacious."

BRA'HMAN'AS should be fed with the residue of the oblation; it is accordingly confecrated for that purpose by the following prayer: "The vessel that holds thee is the earth; its lid is the sky: I offer this residue of an oblation, similar to ambrosia, in the undefiled mouth of a priest; may this oblation be efficacious." The performer of the sradd'ha then points with his thumb towards the food, saying, "Thrice did Vishn'u step, &c." He adds, "May the demons and giants, that sit on this consecrated spot, be dispersed." He meditates the gayatri with the names of worlds; and sweetens the food, with honey or sugar, saying, "May winds blow sweet, &c."

&c." He then distributes the food among Bráhmahas, and when they have eaten, and have acknowledged that they are satisfied, he gives them water to rince their mouths.

He now proceeds to offer the funeral cakes, confisting of balls or lumps of food mixed with clarified butter. He offers three to the paternal forefathers, as many to the maternal ancestors, and two to the Viśwedevas. The prayers, ("Ancestors! rejoice, take your respective shares, &c.") and the form of the oblation, have been already mentioned. It is only necessary to add in this place, that he wipes his hand with cusa grass in honour of remoter ancestors, who thus become partakers of the oblations.

In the next place, he makes fix libations of water from the palms of his hands, with the falutation to the feafons: "Salutation unto you, O fathers, and unto the faddening feafon, &c." By this prayer the manes of ancestors are doubly faluted; for the Véda declares, "The fix feafons are the progenitors of mankind."

A THREAD is placed on each funeral cake, to serve as apparel for the manes; and each time the same words are repeated; "Fathers! this apparel is offered unto you." Flowers, perfumes, and similar things, are added at pleasure; but water must be sprinkled on each cake, with the prayer, "Waters, ye are the food of our progenitors, &c."

The performer of the śrádd'ha then takes up the middle cake, and smells to it; or his wise eats it, if they be solicitous for male offspring: in this case the following prayer must be recited: "Grant, O progenitors, the conception of a male child, slong-lived and healthy, like the lotos and garland, sor twins, that sprung from A'swini; so that, at this season, there may be a person [to sulfill the wishes of the Gods, of the manes, and of human beings."] He then takes up the cakes successively, smells to them, throws them into a vessel, and gives away the

food to a mendicant priest, or to a cow; or else calts it into the waters.

HE then dismisses the manes, saying, "Fathers, to whom food belongs, guard our food, and the other things offered by us; venerable and immortal as ye are, and conversant with holy truths, quaff the sweet essence of it; be cheerful; and depart contented by the paths which Gods travel." Lastly, he walks round the spot, and leaves it, saying, "May the benefit of this oblation accrue to me repeatedly: may the Goddess of the earth, and the Goddess of the sky, whose form is the universe, visit me [with present and suture happiness.] Father and mother! revisit me, [when I again celebrate obsequies.] Sóma, king of the manes, visit me for the sake of [confer-

ring | immortality."

A S'RA'DD'HA is thus performed with an oblation of three funeral cakes only, to three male paternal ancestors, on some occasions; or with as many funeral oblations to three maternal ancestors, on others. Sometimes separate oblations are also presented to the wives of the paternal ancestors; at other times, similar offerings are likewise made to the wives of three maternal ancestors. Thus at the monthly śrádďhas celebrated on the day of new moon, fix funeral cakes are offered to three paternal and as many maternal male ancestors with their wives: on most other occafions, separate oblations are presented to the semale ancestors. At the obsequies celebrated in the first half of Aswina, on the day entitled Mahalaya, funeral cakes are separately offered to every deceased friend and near relation: thus, immediately after the oblations to ancestors, a cake is presented to a deceased wife; then to a son or daughter, to a brother or fister, to an uncle or aunt, to a father-in-law, to a preceptor, and, lastly, to a friend. The same is observed at the obsequies performed on the day of an eclipse, or upon a pilgrimage to any holy spot, and especially to Gayá. FORMAL

FORMAL obsequies are performed no less than ninety-fix times in every year; namely, on the day of the new moon, and on the dates of the fourteen Menwantaras, and of four Yugadyas; that is, on the anniverfaries of the accession of fourteen Menus, and of the commencement of four ages: also, throughout the whole first fortnight of Aswina, thence called pitripacsha, and whenever the fun enters a new fign, and especially when he reaches the equinox, or either solftice; and, in certain circumstances, when the moon arrives at Vyatipatá, one of the twenty-seven yógas, or altrological divisions of the zodiack. The eighth of Pausha, called Aindri, the eighth of Maghá, (when flesh-meat should be offered,) and the ninth of the same month. together with additional obsequies on some of these dates, and on a few others, complete the number above mentioned. Different authorities do not, however, concur exactly in the number or in the particular days when the śrádd'has should be solemnized.

Besides these formal obsequies, a daily śrádd'ha is likewise performed. It consists in dropping sood into the hands of a Bráhmaha, after offering it to six ancestors by name, with the usual preparatory vow and prayers, and with the formality of placing three blades of grass as a seat for each ancestor; but using a single prayer only sof the invocation of the manes, and omitting the ceremony of welcoming them with an argha. Libations of water are also made in honour of progenitors, as noticed in the former essay on daily ablutions.

THE obsequies for increase of prosperity, or, as the same term (Vriddhi śrádďha) may signify, the obsequies personned on an accession of prosperity, are celebrated previously to the sacrifice of a victim, and to the solemnization of a marriage, or of any of the

^{*} Sometimes named Nándi muc'ha, from a word which occurs in the prayer peculiar to this x'rádd'hu.

the ceremonies which, according to the notions of the *Hindus*, contribute to the regeneration of a twice-born man; that is, of a *Bráhmaha*, *Cshatriya*, or *Vaisya*. This śrádd'ha is likewise performed at the commencement and close of a solemn fast.

It should be observed respecting the practice of giving food to priests at all these obsequies, that Bráhmahas generally give it to one or more of their own relations. A stranger, unless indigent, would be very unwilling to accept the food, or to attend at a śrádd'ha for the purpose of eating it. The use of flesh-meat is positively enjoined to Hindus at certain obsequies, (see Menu c. 3. v. 124,) and recommended at all, (Menu c. 3. v. 268, &c.) but the precepts of their law-givers on the subject, are by some deemed obsolete in the present age; and are evaded by others, who acknowledge the cogency of these laws: these commonly make a vow to abstain from flesh-meat, and consider that vow as more binding than the precepts here alluded to. Others, again, not only eat meat at obsequies and solemn facrifices, but make it their common diet, in direct breach of the institutes of their religion. (See MENU C. 5. v. 31, &c.)

BRA'HMAN'AS, who maintain a perpetual fire, which all who devote themseves to the priesthood ought to do, perform the daily ceremonies of religion in their sull detail. Others, who are engaged in worldly pursuits, and even some who follow the regular profession of the sacerdotal tribe, abridge these rites: they comprise all the daily sacraments in one ceremony, called Vaiswadéva, which is celebrated in the forenoon, and by some in the evening likewise. It consists in oblations to the Gods, to the manes, and to the spirits, out of the food prepared for the daily meal; and in a gift of a part of it to guests.

Sitting down on a clean spot of ground, the

Brá mana places a vessel containing fire on his right har s, and hallows it by throwing away a lighted pie e of cusa grass, saying, "I dismiss far away carnivorous fire, &c. He then places it on the consecrated spot, reciting the prayer with which the household and facrificial fires should be lighted by the attrition of wood: "Fires! [this wood] is thy origin, which is attainable in all seasons; whence being produced, thou dost shine. Knowing this, seize on it, and afterwards augment our wealth."

He then lays cusa grass on the eastern side of the fire, with its tips pointed towards the north, reciting the first verse of the Rigvéda, with which also it is usual to commence the daily lecture of that Véda:

"I praise divine fire, primevally consecrated, the efficient performer of a solemn ceremony, the chief agent of a facrisce, the most liberal giver of gems."

He next spreads cusa grass on the southern side of the fire, with its tips pointed towards the east, reciting the introduction of the Yajurvéda, with which also a daily lecture of the Yajush is always begun.

1. I gather thee for the sake of rain." [He breaks off a branch of a tree, or is supposed to do so, with these words:] 2. I pluck thee for the sake of strength." [He pulls down the branch he had broken.]

3. Ye are like unto air." [He touches young calves with the branch he had plucked.] 4. "May the liberal generator [of worlds] make you happily reach this most excellent sacrament." [He is here supposed to touch the milch cows with the same branch.]

He then spreads cusa grass on the western side, with the tips pointed to the north, reciting the prayer which precedes a lecture of Sámadéva: "Fire! approach to taste [my offering;] thou, who art praised for the gist of oblations. Sit down on this grass, thou, who art the complete performer of the solemn sacrifice."

In like manner he fpreads cusa grass on the northern

northern side, with the tips pointed to the east, reciting the prayer which precedes a lecture of the Atharvan: "May divine waters be auspicious to us, &c."

Exciting the fire, and sprinkling water on it, he must offer with his hands, food smeared with clarified butter, three several times, saying, " Earth! Sky! Heaven!" He then makes five similar oblations to the regent of fire; to the god of medicine; to the affembled deities; to the lord of created beings; and, lastly, to the Creator of the universe." He concludes the facrament of the Gods with fix oblations, reciting fix pravers, 1. "Fire! thou dost expiate a fin against the Gods [arising from any failure in divine worship:] may this oblation be efficacious." 2. "Thou dost expiate a sin against man [arifing from a failure in hospitality."] 3. " Thou dost expiate a fin against the manes from a failure in the performance of obsequies."] 4. " Thou dost expiate a fin against my own foul [arising from any blameable act."] 5. "Thou dost expiate repeated fins." 6. "Thou dost expiate every fin I have committed, whether wilfully or unintentionally: may this oblation be efficacious."

HE then worships fire, making an oblation to it with this prayer: "Fire! seven are thy suels; seven thy tongues; seven thy holy sages; seven thy beloved abodes; seven ways do seven sacrificers worship thee. Thy sources are seven. Be content with this clarified butter. May this oblation be efficacious."*

Vol. VII. T AROUT

^{*} The commentator enumerates the seven tongues of fire, Pravaha, 'Avaha, Udvaha, Samvaha, I waha, Partraha, Nivaha, (or else Anuvaha;) all of which imply the power of conveying oblations to the deities to whom offerings are made. The seven holy sages and sacrificers, are the Hotri, Maitravar ma, Brahmana, handasi, Ach'hávác, Pótri, Néshiri, and Agnia'hra; that is, the seven officiating priests at very solemn sacrifices. They worship fire seven ways, by the Agnish'tóma, and other sacrifices. The seven abodes

ABOUT this time he extinguishes the Racshoghna, or lamp lighted previously to the presenting of oblations to the Gods and to the manes. It was lighted for the purpose of repelling evil spirits, and is now extinguished with this text: "In solemn acts of religion, whatever fails through the negligence of those who perform the ceremony, may be perfected solely

through meditation on Vishn'u."

THE Bráhmana should next offer the residue of the oblation to spirits, going round to the different places where fuch oblations ought to be made, sweeping each spot with his hand, sprinkling water on it, and placing there lumps of food. Near the fpot where the veffel of water stands, he presents three such oblations, saying, "Salutation to rain, to water, to the earth." At both doors of his house he makes offerings to D'HA'TRI and VID'HA'TRI, or BRAHMA, the protector and creator. Towards the eight principal points of the compass he places offerings, feverally adding falutation to them, and to the regents of them. In the middle of the house he presents oblations, with falutation to Brahma', to the Iky, and to the sun. Afterwards he offers similar oblations to all the Gods; to all beings; to twilight; and to the Lord of all beings. He then shifts the facrificial cord, and looking towards the fouth, and dropping one knee, he prefents an oblation to the manes of ancestors, saving, "Salutation to progenitors; may this ancestral food be acceptable." This ceremony is not constantly practifed, though directed in some rituals; but the residue of the oblation

abodes are the names of the seven worlds; and fire is called in the Véda, saptachitica, which seems to allude to seven consecrated hearths. In the sixteen verses called Paurusha, which have been already quoted, the names of the seven worlds, thrice repeated, are understood to be meant by the thrice seven fuels; and the seven oceans are the seven moats surrounding the altar. Pire, like the sun itself, is supposed to emit seven rays; this, perhaps, may account for the number seven being so often repeated.

lation to the Gods must be left on a clean spot of ground, as an oblation to all beings, intended, however, for dogs and crows in particular. It is prefented with the following prayer, which is taken from the Puránas. " May Gods, men, cattle, birds, demi-gods, benevolent genii, serpents, demons, departed spirits, blood-thirsty savages, trees, and all who desire food given by me: 2. May reptiles, insects, slies, and all hungry beings, or spirits concerned in this rite, obtain contentment from this food left for them by me; and may they become happy: 3. May they, who have neither mother, nor father, nor kinfman, nor food, nor means of obtaining it, be fatisfied with that which is offered by me on this spot for their contentment, and be cheerful." Or the following prayer may be used: "To animals, who night and day roam in fearch of food offered to the spirits, he who defires nourishment should give fomething: may the Lord of nourifliment grant it unto mc.

HE concludes by performing a lustration similar to that which has been already noticed, but much shorter. After thus completing the other sacraments, the householder should present food to his guests; that is, to any person who claims his hospitality. When he has thus allotted out of the food prepared for his own repall, one portion to the Gods, a second to progenitors, a third to all beings, and a sourth to his guests, he and his family may then, and not before, consume the remaining portion of the sood. Whenever a spiritual preceptor, a devotee, or an officiating priest, a bridegroom, or a particular friend, comes as a guest, he is received with honours, which will be described among the nuptial ceremonies. In the entertainment of other guests, no religious rites are performed, nor any prayers recited.

The householder is enjoined to give daily alms, but no particular time is prescribed for the distribution of them: he is simply directed to give sood

to religious mendicants whenever they come to his door, but especially if they come at the time when sood is ready for his own meal. On the authority of the Purahas, it is also a common practice to feed a cow before the householder breaks his own fast.* He either presents grass, water, and corn, to her with this text, "Daughter of Surabhí, framed of five elements, auspicious, pure, holy, sprung from the sun, accept this food given by me; salutation unto thee:" or else he conducts the kine to grass, saying, "May cows, who are mothers of the three worlds, and daughters of Surabhí, and who are beneficent, pure, and holy, accept the food given by me."

Some Bráhmanas do still further abridge the compendious ceremony called Vaiswadéva. They offer perfumes and slowers to fire; and make five oblations, out of the food prepared for their own use, to Brahma, to the Lord of created beings, to the household fire, to Casyapa, and to Anumati, dropping each oblation on fire, or on water, or on the ground, with the usual addition, "May this oblation be efficacious." They then make offerings to all beings, by placing a few lumps of food at the door, or on a quadrangular spot near the fire, with a falutation

^{*} The adoration of a cow is not uncommon. This worship consists in presenting flowers to her, washing her feet, &c. It is entirely different from the practice here noticed. Both seem to be founded on the superstitious notion, that the favour of Suranni, (the boon-granting cow) may be gained by showing kindness to her offspring. The story of Vasishta's cow, Nandini, attended by the king Duipa, for the sake of obtaining a boon through her means, is a pretty fable grounded on this notion: it is beautifully told by . Ca'LIDA'SA in the Raghuvan'sa. I cannot refrain from mentioning another fable of a cow named BAHULA', whose expostulations with a tyger, pleading to him to spare her life, form the only admired passage in the lra'hasas, or collection of stories supposed to be related by Buimase'na, while he lay at the point of death, wounded with innumerable arrows. The fourth day of Alswina is sacred to this cow, and named from her, Bukulá Cha-Images of her, and of her calf, are worshipped; and the extract from the ITIHASAS is on that day read with great solemnity.

lation to the Gods must be left on a clean spot of ground, as an oblation to all beings, intended, however, for dogs and crows in particular. It is prefented with the following prayer, which is taken from the Puránas. " May Gods, men, cattle, birds, demi-gods, benevolent genii, serpents, demons, departed spirits, blood-thirsty savages, trees, and all who desire food given by me: 2. May reptiles, insects, slies, and all hungry beings, or spirits concerned in this rite, obtain contentment from this food left for them by me; and may they become happy: 3. May they, who have neither mother, nor father, nor kinfman, nor food, nor means of obtaining it, be fatisfied with that which is offered by me on this spot for their contentment, and be cheerful." Or the following prayer may be used: "To animals, who night and day roam in fearch of food offered to the spirits, he who defires nourishment should give fomething: may the Lord of nourifliment grant it unto mc.

HE concludes by performing a lustration similar to that which has been already noticed, but much shorter. After thus completing the other sacraments, the householder should present food to his guests; that is, to any person who claims his hospitality. When he has thus allotted out of the food prepared for his own repall, one portion to the Gods, a second to progenitors, a third to all beings, and a sourth to his guests, he and his family may then, and not before, consume the remaining portion of the sood. Whenever a spiritual preceptor, a devotee, or an officiating priest, a bridegroom, or a particular friend, comes as a guest, he is received with honours, which will be described among the nuptial ceremonies. In the entertainment of other guests, no religious rites are performed, nor any prayers recited.

The householder is enjoined to give daily alms, but no particular time is prescribed for the distribution of them: he is simply directed to give sood

form of humble falutation to his forehead; and he should add, "May this be always ours:" that is, may food never be deficient. When he has fitten down, he should lift the plate with his left hand, and bless the food, saying, "Thou art invigorating." He sets it down, naming the three worlds; or if the food be handed to him, he fays, "May heaven give thee;" and then accepts it with these words; "The earth accepts thee." Before he begins eating, he must move his hand round the plate, to insulate it, or his own person rather, from the rest of the company. next offers five lumps of food to Yama by five different titles: he fips and swallows water: he makes five oblations to breath by five distinct names, Prána, Vyána, Apána, Samána, and Udána; and lastly, he wets both eyes. He then eats his repast in silence, I fting the food with all the fingers of his right hand; and afterwards again sips water, saying, "Ambrosial fluid! thou art the couch of VISHN'U, and of food.

NOTES.

(A) THAT Hindus belong to various fects, is universally known; but their characteristic differences are not, perhaps, so generally understood. Five great fects exclusively worthip a fingle deity; one recognises the five divinities which are adored by the other fects respectively; but the sollowers of this comprehensive scheme mostly select one object of daily devotion, and pay adoration to other deities on particular occasions only. Even they deny the charge of polytheism, and repel the imputation of idolatry: they justify the practice of adoring the images of celestial spirits, by arguments similar to those which have been ellewhere employed in defence of angel and image worship. If the doctrines of the Vedz. and even those of the Puránas, be closely examined, the Hindu theology will be found confistent with monotheism, though it contain the feeds of polytheifm and idolatry. I shall take some future occafion of enlarging on this topic: I have here only to remark, that modern Hindus feem to misunderstand the numerous texts which declare the unity of the godhead, and the identity of VISHN'U, SIVA, the Sun, &c. Their theologists have entered into vain disputes on the question, which among the attributes of GOD, shall be deemed characteristic and pre-eminent. Sancara-A'CHA'RYA, the celebrated commentator on the Véda, contended for the attributes of S'IVA, and founded, or confirmed, the feet of S'aivas. who worship MAHA'-DE'VA as the Supreme Being, and deny the independent existence of Vishn'u, and other deities. Ma'd'HAVA-A'CHA'RYA, and VALLABHA-A'CHA'RYA, have, in like manner, established the sect of Vai/hnavas, who adore Vishn'u as GOD. The Suras (lels numerous than the two fects above-mentioned) worthip the Sun, and acknowledge no other divinity. The Gánapatyas adore GAN'E's'A, as uniting in his person all the attributes of the Deity.

BEFORE I notice the fifth sect, I must remind the reader, that the Hindu mythology has personified the abstract and attractive powers of the divinity, and has ascribed sexes to these mythological personages. The Sati, or energy of an attribute of GOD, is semale, and is sabled as the consort of that personified attribute. The Sati of Siva, whose emblem is the phallus, is herself typisied by the semale organ. This the Satias worship; some figuratively, others literally.

Vo'PADE'VA, the real author of the S'ri Bhágavala, has endeavoured to reconcile all the sects of Hindus, by reviving the doctrines of Vya'sa. He recognises all the deities, but as subordinate to the Supreme Being, or rather as attributes or manifestations of GOD. A new sect has been thus formed, and is denominated from that, modern Purána; but the numerous followers of it do not seem to have well apprehended the doctrines they profess. They incline much to real polytheism; but do, at least, reject the derogatory notions of the divinity, which the other

sects seem to have adopted.

The Vaisnhavas, though nominally worshippers of Vishn'u, are, in fact, votaries of deified heroes. The Góculast has (one branch of this lect) adore CRISHN'A. while the Rámanuj worship RAMACHANDRA. Both have again branched into three fects: one confifts of the exclusive worshippers of Crishn's, and these only 'are deemed true and orthodox Vaishhavas; another joins his favourite Ra'D'HA' with the herb. A third. called Rád háballabhí, adores Ra'D'HA' only, confidering her as the active power of VISHN'U. The followers of these last mentioned sects have adopted the fingular practice of prefenting to their own wives the oblations intended for the goddess; and those among them who follow the left-handed path, (there is in most sects a right-handed or decent path, and a left-handed or indecent mode of worship,) require their wives to be naked when attending them at their devotions.

Among the Rámánuj, some worship Ra'ma only; others Síta'; and others both Ra'ma and Síta'. None of them practise any indecent mode of worship; and they all, like the Góculast has, as well as the followers of the Bhágavata, delineate on their foreheads, a double upright line with chalk, or with sandal-wood, and a red circlet with red sanders, or with turmerick and lime; but the Rámánuj add an upright red line in the middle of the double white one.

The Saivas are all worshippers of S'IVA and BHAwa'nı conjointly; and they adore the linga, or compound type of this God and Goddess; as the VAISH-N'AVAS do the image of Lacshmi-na'ra'yan'a. There are no exclusive worshippers of S'IVA, besides the sect of naked gymnosophists called Lingis; and the exclusive adorers of the Goddess are the Sáttas. In this last mentioned sect, as in most others, there is a righthanded and decent path, and a left-handed and indecent mode of worship: but the indecent worship of this feet is most grossly so, and consists of unbridled debauchery with wine and women. This profligate fect is supposed to be numerous, though unavowed. In most parts of India, if not in all, they are held in deserved detestation: and even the decent Sáctas do not make public profession of their tenets, nor wear on their foreheads the mark of the fect, left they should be suspected of belonging to the other branch of it.

The S'aivas and Sástas delineate on their foreheads three horizontal lines, with alhes obtained, if possible, from the hearth on which a consecrated here is perpetually maintained: they add a red circlet, which the Saivas make with red sanders; and which the Sástas, when they avow themselves, mark either with saftron, or with turmeric and borax.

THE Sauras are true worthippers of the sun; and some of them, it seems, adore the dormant and active energies of the planet conjointly. This sect, which

which is not very numerous, is distinguished by the use of red sanders for the horizontal triple line, as well as for the circlet on their foreheads.

The Gánapatyas have not, so far as I can learn, branched into different sects. Nor can I add any information respecting their peculiar tenets, surther than that Gan'e's'a is exclusively worshipped by them. The sect is distinguished by the use of red minium for the circlet on their soreheads. The samily of Brāmanas, residing at Chinchwer, near Púnā, and enjoying the privilege of an hereditary incarnation of Gan'e's'a from sather to son, probably belongs to this sect. We may hope for more information on this curious instance of priestcrast and credulity, from the inquiries made on the spot by the gentlemen of the embassy from Bombay, who lately visited that place.

Before I conclude this note, (concerning which it should be remarked, that the information here collected rests chiesly on the authority of verbal communications,) I must add, that the lest-handed path, or indecent worship of the several sects, especially that of the Sástas, is founded on the Tantras, which are for this reason held in disesteem. I was misinformed, when I described them as constituting a branch of literature highly esteemed, though much neglected. (As. Res. vol. 5, p. 54.) The reverse would have been more exact.

(B) This prayer, when used upon other occasions, is thus varied: "Salutation unto you, O fathers, and unto the saddening season, &c." The six seasons, in the order in which they are here named, are the hot, dewy, rainy, slowery, frosty and sultry seasons. One is indicated in this passage by the name of the month with which it begins; and a text of the Véda, alluded to by the late Sir William Jones, in his Observations on the Lunar Year of the Hindus, (As. Res. v. 3, p. 258,) specifies Tapas and Tapasya, the lunar (not the solar) Mágha and Phálguna,

Phálguna, as corresponding with Sísira; that is, with the dewy season. The text in question shall be subjoined to this note, because it may serve to prove that the Véda, from which it is extracted, (APASTAM-BA's copy of the Vajurvéda, usually denominated the white Yajush,) cannot be much older than the observation of the colures recorded by PARA's'ARA, (see As. Ref. v. 2, p. 268 and 393,) which must have been made nearly 1391 years before the Christian æra. (Af. Ref. v. 5, p. 288.) According to the Vida. the lunar Madhu and Madhava, or Chaitra and Vaisác'ha, correspond with Vasanta, or the spring. Now the lunar Chaitra, here meant, is the primary lunar month beginning from the conjunction which precedes full moon in or near Chitrá, and ending with the conjunction which follows it. does, in like manner, extend from the conjunction which precedes the full moon in or near Vaifác'ha to that which follows it. The five Nachatras, Hasta, Chitrá, Swáti, Vaifácha, and Anuradhá, comprise all the afterious in which the full moons of Chaitra and Vaifácha can happen; and these lunar months may therefore fluctuate between the first degree of Uttara P'halguni and the last of Jyéshi'ha: consequently the season of Vasanta might begin at soonest, when the fun was in the middle of Púrva Bhadrapada; or it might end at latest, when the sun was in the middle of Mrigafiras. It appears then, that the limits of Vafanta are Pifces and Taurus; that is, Mina and Vrisha. (This corresponds with a text which I shall forthwith quote from a very ancient Hindu author.) Now, if the place of the equinox did then correspond with the position assigned by PARA's'ARA to the colures, Vafanta might end at the soonest, seven or eight days after the equinox, or at latest, thirty-eight or thirty nine days; and on a medium. (that is, when the full moon happened in the middle of Chitra,) twenty-two or twenty-three days after the vernal equinox. This agrees exactly with the real

real course of the seasons; for the rains do generally begin a week before the fummer folftice; but their commencement does vary, in different years, about a fortnight on either fide of that period. It feems, therefore, a probable inference, that fuch was the position of the equinox when the calendar of months, and seasons was adjusted as described in this pasfage of the Véda. Hence I infer the probability, that the Védas were not arranged in their present form earlier than the fourteenth century before the Christian æra. This, it must be acknowledged, is vague and conjectural; but, if the Védas were compiled in India fo early as the commencement of the astronomical Cali yuga, the seasons must have then corresponded with other months; and the passage of the Vida, which shall be forthwith cited, must have difagreed with the natural course of the seasons at the very time it was written. I shall now quote the passage so often alluded to in this note: "Mad'hus cha Mádhavas cha Vásanticáv ritú; S'ucras cha S'uchis cha graishmáu ritú; Nabhas cha Nabhasyas cha vás shicáv risú; Ishas chójas cha sáradáv ritú; Sahas' cha Sahafyas cha haimanticav ritu; Tapas' cha Tapasyas cha saisiráv ritú." Madhu and Mádhava are the two portions of the feafon Vafanta, (or foring); Sucra and Suchi, of grishma, (or the hot feason); Nabhas and Nabhasya, of varsha, (or the rainy season); Ijas and Ujas, of S'arada, (or the fultry scason); and Sahas and Sahsya, of himanta, (or the frosty season); and Tapas and Tapas, of sisra, (or the dewy season).

ALL authors agree that Madhu fignifies the month of Chaitra, Mádhava the month of Vaisacha, and so forth. These names are so explained in distionaries and by astronomical writers, as well as by the commentators on this and other passages, where these names of the months are employed. The author now before me (Diva'cara Bha'r'r'a) expressly says, that this text of the Véda relates to the order of

of the seasons according to the lunar months. He proves it by quoting a text of the Taittiriya Yajurvéda, and afterwards cites the following passage from BAUDHAY'ANA, respecting the seasons measured by solar-sidereal time, "Mina Méshayor Mésha Vri shabhayor va vasantah," &c. Vasanta corresponds with Mina and Mesha, or with Mesha and Vrisha. &c. It should be observed, that the secondary lunar month, which begins and ends with the full moon. cannot be here meant, because this mode of reckoning has never been universal; and the use of it is limited to countries situated to the northward of the Vindhya range of hills, as I learn from the following passage of the Tricand'a mandana: " The lunar month also, is of two forts, commencing either with the light fortnight, or with the dark one. Some do not admit the month which begins with the dark fortnight; and even by them who do, it is not admitted on the fouth of the Vind hya mountains."

Note on Volume 5th, page 108.

In Nos. 3, 5, and 22, of the 5th volume of Asiatick Researches, there are many typographical errors, occasioned chiesly by the inaccuracy of the amanuensis who transcribed those tracts for transmission to the press. In most instances the correction will readily occur to the reader; but one (p. 108, l. 14 and 15,) requires to be marked, because the error very materially affects the sense of the passage, which is there verbally translated from RAGHUNANDANA'S treatise on astrology. I shall take the present opportunity of amending that translation, which is not sufficiently exact as it now stands, and I shall add some remarks on it.

"The Ghaticas, elapsed from the beginning of the day, being doubled and divided by five, are the lords [or regents] of horas confidered as a denomination of time. During the day these regents are determined by intervals of six [counted] from the day's own regent; during the night, by intervals of sive."

Hóra, though not found in the most familiar vocabularies of the Sanfcrit language, is noticed in the Viswa Médini as bearing several senses. It signifies the diurnal rising of a sign of the zodiac, and also fignifies an astrological figure, and half a fign. It is in this last acceptation that the word is used in the foregoing passage. Considered as a denomination of time, half a sign of the zodiac is the twenty-fourth part of a day; and the coincidence of the name for that measure of time is no less remarkable, than the affigning of a planet to govern each hour, which was done by European as well as Indian aftrologers. The hours of the planets (as is remarked by CHAUCER in his treatife on the astrolabe) follow the order of the planets B. 4. 8. O. Q. V. Consequently, the first hour of Saturday being that of Saturn, the twentyfourth

of the seasons according to the lunar months. He proves it by quoting a text of the Taittiriya Yajurvéda, and afterwards cites the following passage from BAUDHAY'ANA, respecting the seasons measured by folar-sidereal time, " Mina Meshayor Mesha Vri shabhayor va vasantah," &c. Vasanta corresponds with Mina and Mesha, or with Mesha and Vrisha, &c. It should be observed, that the secondary lunar month, which begins and ends with the full moon, cannot be here meant, because this mode of reckoning has never been universal; and the use of it is limited to countries situated to the northward of the Vindhya range of hills, as I learn from the following passage of the Tricand'a mandana: " The lunar month also, is of two forts, commencing either with the light fortnight, or with the dark one. Some do not admit the month which begins with the dark fortnight; and even by them who do, it is not admitted on the fouth of the Vind'hya mountains."

IX.

ON THE

Religious Ceremonies of the HINDUS, and of the BRA'MENS especially.

By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

ESSAY III.

TOSPITALITY has been already mentioned in the preceding Essay, as one of the five great facraments which constitute the daily duty of a Hin-The formal reception of such guests as are entitled to peculiar honour, was referved for the subject of the present tract. The religious rites, intermixed with acts of courtefy, which are practifed by way of formal hospitality, are nearly the same, whether it be high rank, a venerable profession, or cordial friendship, which entitles the guest to be welcomed with distinction. They chiefly consist in presenting to him a stool to sit on, water for ablutions, and honey, mixed with other food, for refreshment. It seems to have been anciently the custom to slay a cow on this occafion; and a guest was therefore called góghna, or cow-killer. Imperfect traces of this custom remain in the hospitable ceremonies which I shall now describe from the ritual of Bramanas who use the Samavéda. As the marriage ceremony opens with the folemn reception of the bridegroom by the father of the bride, this part of the nuptial folemnity may be fitly chosen as an example of hospitable rites. It will furnish occasion, too, for proceeding to describe the whole of the marriage ceremony.

HAVING previously performed the obsequies of encestors, as is usual upon any accession of good fortune, the father of the bride sits down, to await the bridegroom's arrival, in the apartment prepared

for the purpose; and at the time chosen for it, according to the rules of astrology. The jewels, and other presents intended for him, are placed there; a cow is tied on the northern side of the apartment; and a stool, or cushion, and other furniture, for the reception of the guest, are arranged in order. On his approach, the bride's father rises to welcome him, and recites the following prayer, while the bridegroom stands before him.

"MAY she [who supplies oblations for] religious worship, who constantly follows her calf, and who was the milch-cow when YAMA was [the votary,] abound with milk, and fulfil our wishes, year after

" vear."

This prayer is feemingly intended for the confecration of the cow, which is let loofe in a subsequent stage of the ceremony, instead of slaving her, as appears to have been anciently the custom. The commentator, whose gloss has been followed in this verfion of the text, introduces it by the remark, that a guest, entitled to honourable reception, is a spiritual preceptor, a priest, an ascetick, a prince, a bridegroom, a friend, or, in short, any one, to welcome whose arrival a cow must be tied for the purpose of flaying her, whence a guest is denominated goghna, or cow-killer. The prayer feems to contain an allufion, which I cannot better explain, than by quoting a passage from Ca'lida'sa's poem, entitled Raghuvansa, where Vas'isht' ha informs the king Dilipa, that the cow Surabhi, who was offended by his neglect. cannot be now appealed by courtely shown to herself, because she remains in a place inaccessible to him: 66 PRACHE'TAS is performing a tedious facrifice, to supply the oblations of which, Surabhi now abides in the infernal region, whose gates are guarded by huge serpents."

Arter the prayer above-mentioned has been meditated, the bridegroom fits down on a stool, or cushion, which is presented to him: he first recites a Vol. VII.

text of the Yajurvéda: " I step on this for the sake of food, and other benefits, on this variously splendid footstool." The bride's father presents to him a cushion made of twenty leaves of cusa grass, holding it up with both hands, and exclaiming, "The cufhion! the cushion! the cushion!" The bridegroom replies, "I accept the cushion;" and, taking it, places it on the ground under his feet, while he recites the following prayer: "May those plants over which Soma presides, and which are variously disperfed on the earth, incessantly grant me happiness while this cushion is placed under my feet." Another is presented to him, which he accepts in the fame manner, faying, "May those numerous plants over which Soma prefides, and which are falutary a hundred different ways, incessantly grant me happiness while I sit on this cushion." Instead of these prayers, which are peculiar to the Bráhmahas that is the Sámavéda, the following text is commonly recited: "I obscure my rivals, as the sun does other luminaries: I tread on this as the type of him who

THE bride's father next offers a vessel of water, thrice exclaiming, "Water for ablutions!" The bridegroom declares his acceptance of it, and looks into the vessel, saying, "Generous water! I view thee: return in the form of fertilizing rain, from him from whom thou dost proceed:" that is, from the fun; for it is acknowledged, fays the commentator, that rain proceeds from vapours raifed by the heat of The bridegroom takes up water in the palms of both hands joined together, and throws it on his left foot, faying, " I wash my left foot, and fix prosperity in this realm:" He also throws water on his other foot, faying, "I wash my right foot, and introduce prosperity into this realm;" and he then throws water on both feet, faying, " I wash first one, and then the other; and lastly, both feet, that the realm may thrive, and intrepidity be gained." The

The following is the text of the Yajush, which is generally used instead of the preceding prayers: "Thou dost afford various elegance; I accept thee, who dost so: afford it for the ablution of my feet."

An arghya (that is, water, rice, and durvá grass, in a conch, or in a vessel shaped like one, or rather like a boat) is next presented to the bridegroom in a similar manner, and accepted by him with equal formality: he pours the water on his own head, saying, "Thou art the splendour of food; through thee may I become glorious." This prayer is taken from the Yajush; but the followers of that Véda use different texts, accepting the arghya with this prayer: "Ye are waters, (áp:) through you may I obtain (áp) all my wishes;" and pouring out the water with this text, "I dismiss you to the ocean; return to your source, harmless unto me, most excellent waters! but my beverage is not poured forth."

A vesser of water is then offered by the bride's father, who thrice exclaims, "Take water to be fipped." The bridegroom accepts it, faying, "Thou art glorious, grant me glory:" or elfe, "Conduct me to glory; endue me with fplendour; render me dear to all people; make me owner of cattle; and preferve

me unhurt in all my limbs."

The bride's father fills a vessel with honey, curds, and clarified butter; he covers it with another vessel, and presents it to the bridegroom, exclaiming three times, "Take the mad'huparca." The bridegroom accepts it; places it on the ground; and looks into it, saying, "Thou art glorious: may I become so." He tastes the sood three times, saying, "Thou art the sustenance of the glorious; thou art the nourishment of the splendid; thou art the food of the fortunate; grant me prosperity." He then silently cars until he be satisfied.

ALTHOUGH these texts be taken from the Yajush, yet other prayers from the same Védu are used by

the sects which follow it. While looking into the vessel, the bridegroom says, "I view thee with the eye of the sun, who draws unto himself what he contemplates."] On accepting the mad'huparca, the bridegroom fays, "I take thee with the affent of the generous sun; with the arms of both sons of Aswini; with the hands of the cherishing luminary." He mixes it, faying, "May I mix thee, O venerable present! and remove whatever might be hurtful in the eating of thee." He taftes it three times, faying, "May I eat that sweet, best and nourishing form of honey, which is the sweet, best, and nourishing form of honey; and may I thus become excellent, sweet-tempered, and well nourished by food." After eating until he be fatisfied, and after fipping water, he touches his mouth, and other parts of his body, with his hand, faying, " May there be speech in my mouth; breath in my nostrils; fight in my eye-balls; hearing in my ears; strength in my arms; firmness in my thighs: may my limbs and members remain unhurt, together with my foul."

Presents suitable to the rank of the parties are then presented to the guest. At the marriage ceremony, too, the bride is formally given by her father to the bridegroom, in this stage of the solemnity, according to some rituals, but later, according to others. The hospitable rites are then concluded by letting loose the cow at the intercession of the guest. A bather, who attends for that purpose, exclaims, "The cow! the cow!" Upon which the guest pronounces this text: "Release the cow from the fetters of Varun'a. May she subdue my soe: may she destroy the enemies of both him (the host) [and mc.] Dismiss the cow, that she may cat grass, and drink water." When the cow has been released, the guest thus addresses her: "I have earnessly entreated this prudent person, [or, according to antiber

other interpretation of the text, each docile person,] faying, kill not the innocent harmless cow, who is mother of Rudras, daughter of Vasus, sister of A'dityas, and the source of ambrosia." In the Yajurvéda the sollowing prayer is added to this text: "May she expiate my sins, and his, (naming the host.) Release her, that she may graze." It is evident that the guest's intercessions imply a practice, now become obsolete, of slaying a cow for the pur-

poses of hospitality.

WHILE the bridegroom is welcomed with these ceremonies, or, more properly, before his arrival, the bathes during the recital of the following texts. Three veffels of water are severally poured on her head, with three different prayers. 1. "Love! I know thy name: Thou art called an intoxicating beverage. Bring [the bridegroom] happily. For thee was framed the inebriating draught. Fire! thy best origin is here: Through devotion wert thou created. May this oblation be efficacious." 66 Damsel! I anoint this thy generative organ with honey, because it is the second mouth of the Creator: by that thou subduest all males, though unfubdued; by that thou art lively, and dost hold dominion. May this oblation be efficacious." g. " May the prinieval ruling sages, who framed the female organ, as a fire that confumeth flesh, and thereby framed a procreating juice, grant the pro-lifick power that proceeds from the three-horned [bull,] and from the fun. May this oblation be efficacious." To elucidate the first of these texts, the commentator cites the following passage: "The fage Vas'isht' HA, the regent of the moon, the ruler of heaven, the preceptor of the Gods, and the great forefather of all beings, however old in the practice of devotion, and old by the progress of age, were deluded by women. Liquors distilled from fugar, from grain, and from the bloffoms of U a

Bassia, are three forts of intoxicating drinks: the fourth is woman, by whom this world is deluded. One who contemplates a beautiful woman, becomes intoxicated; and so does he who quasts an inebriating beverage: Woman is called an inebriating draught, because she intoxicates by her looks." To explain the second text, the same author quotes a passage of the Véda, intimating that Brahma' has two mouths; one containing all holiness; the other allotted for the production of all beings; for they are created from his mouth."

After the bridegroom has tasted the Mad'huparca, presented to him as above-mentioned, the bride's right hand is placed on his, both having been previously rubbed with turmerick, or some other auspicious drug. A matron must bind both hands with cusa grass, amidst the found of cheerful musick. To this part of the ceremony, the author of the poem entitled Naishada, has very prettily alluded, in de-feribing the marriage of NALA and DAMAYANT'I, (b. xvi. v. 13 and 14.) As he tasted the Mad'huvarca, which was prefented to him, those spectators, who had forefight, reflected, "He has begun the ceremonies of an auspicious day, because he will quaff the honey of Bhaimis lip. The bridegroom's hand exults in the flaughter of foes; the bride's hand has purloined its beauty from the lotos; it is for that reason, probably, that, in this well-governed realm of Viderbha, both [guilty] hands are fast bound with strong cusa."

THE bride's father, bidding the attendant priests begin their acclamations, such as "Happy day! auspicious be it! prosperity attend! blessings! &c." takes a vessel of water, containing tila* and cusat grass, and pours it on the hands of the bride and bridegroom, after uttering the words, "O'm! tat sat!"

^{*} Sesamum Indicum.

fat!" "God the existent!" and after repeating, at full length, the names and designations of the bridegroom, of the bride, and of himself; and then so-lemnly declaring, "I give unto thee this damsel, adorned with jewels, and protected by the Lord of creatures;" the bridegroom replies, "Well be it!" The bride's father afterwards gives him a piece of gold, faying, "I this day give thee this gold, as a fee for the purpose of completing the solemn donation made by me." The bridegroom again fays, Well be it!" and then recites this text: " Who gave her? to whom did he give her? Love (or free consent) gave her. To love he gave her. Love was the giver. Love was the taker. Love! may this be thine! With love may I enjoy her!" The close of the text is thus varied in the Samaveda: "Love has pervaded the ocean. With love I accept her. Love! may this be thine." In the common rituals, another prayer is directed, to be likewife recited immediately after thus formally accepting the bride: " May the ethereal element give thee. May earth accept thee."

Being thus affianced, the bride and bridegroom then walk forth, while he thus addresses her: "May the regents of space, may air, the sun, and sire, dispel that anxiety which thou seelest in thy mind, and turn thy heart to me." He proceeds thus, while they look at each other: "Be gentle in thy aspect, and loyal to thy husband: be fortunate in cattle, amiable in thy mind, and beautiful in thy person: be mother of valiant sons; be fond of delights; be cheerful; and bring prosperity to our bipeds and quadrupeds. First [in a former birth] Soma received thee; a celestial quirister next obtained thee; [in successive transmigrations] the regent of sire was thy third husband: thy sourth is a human being Soma gave her to a celestial quirister; the Gandharba gave her to the regent of tire; fire gave her to me: with her he has give me wealth

and male offspring. May she, a most auspicious cause

of prosperity, never desert me, &c."*

IT should seem that, according to these rituals, the bridegroom gives a waistcloth and mantle to the bride before he is affianced to her; and the ceremony of tying the skirts of their mantles precedes that of her father's folemnly bestowing her on the bridegroom. But the ritual of the Samavedi priests make the gift of the damsel precede the tying of the knot; and, inconsistently enough, directs the mantles to be tied before the bridegroom has clothed the bride. After the donation has been accepted as abovementioned, the bride's father should tie a knot in the bridegroom's mantle over the presents given with the bride, while the affianced pair are looking The cow is then released in the manner at each other. before described; a libation of water is made; and the bride's father meditates the gáyatri, and ties a knot with the skirts of the bride's and bridegroom's mantles, after saying, "Ye must be inseparably united in matters of duty, wealth, and love." The bridegroom afterwards clothes the bride with the following ceremonies.

He goes to the principal apartment of the house, prepares a facrificial fire in the usual mode, and hallows the implements of facrifice. A friend of the bridegroom walks round the fire, bearing a jar of water, and stops on the south side of it. Another does the same, and places himself on the right hand of the first. The bridegroom then casts four double handfuls of rice, mixed with leaves of S'ami, tinto a slat basket: near it he places a stone and mullar, after formally touching them: and then, entering

^{*}I omit the remainder of the text, which it would be indecorous to translate into a modern language. The literal sense of it is here subjoined in a Latin version: "Illa redamans accipito fascinum meum, quod ego peramans intromittam in eam, multæ qua illicebras sistunts

[†] Adenanthera sculeata.

entering the house, he causes the bride to be clothed with a new waistcloth and scarf, while he recites the subjoined prayers. "May those generous wo-men, who spun and wound the thread, and who wove the warp and weft of this cloth, generoully clothe thee to old age. Long-lived woman! put on this rai-ment." "Clothe her: Invest her with apparel! Prolong her life to great age. May thou live a hundred years. As long as thou livest, amiable woman! revere [that is, carefully preserve] beauty and wealth." The first of these prayers is nearly the same with that which is used by the followers of the Yajush when the scarf is put on the bride's shoulder. It is preceded by a different one, which is recited while the waistcloth is wrapped round her: " May thou reach old age. Put on this raiment. Be lovely : be chafte. Live a hundred years. Invite [that is, preserve and obtain] beauty, wealth, and male offspring. Damsel! put on this apparel." Afterwards the following prayer is recited: "May the affembled gods unit our hearts: May the waters unite them. May air unite us: May the Creator unite us: May the god of love unite us."

Bur, according to the followers of the Sámavéda; the bridegroom, immediately after the scarf has been placed on the bride's shoulder, conducts her towards the sacrificial fire, saying, "Sóma [the regent of the moon] gave her to a heavenly quirister: the Gandharba gave her to the regent of hie: fire has given her to me, and with her wealth and male offspring." The bride then goes to the western side of the fire, and recites the following prayer, while she steps on a mat made of Virana grais, and covered with silk: "May our lord assign me the path by which I may reach

^{*} Gt N'AVISHN'U here explains Gandharba by the word A ditye, which may signify the sun, or a deity in general.

⁺ Andropogon aromaticum, or muricatum.

reach the abode of my lord." She fits down on the edge of the mat, and the bridegroom offers fix oblations of clarified butter, reciting the following prayers, while the bride touches his shoulder with her right hand. 1. " May fire come first among the gods; may it rescue her offspring from the setters of death: may VARUN'A, king [of waters,] grant that this woman should never bemoan a calamity befallen her children. 2. May the domestic perpetual fire guard her; may it render her progeny long-lived: may she never be widowed; may the be mother of surviving children; may she experience the joy of having male offspring. 3. May heaven protect thy back; may air, and the two sons of Aswini, protect thy thighs; may the fun protect thy children while fucking thy breast: and VRIHASPATI protect them until they wear clothes, and afterwards may the affembled gods protest them. 4. May no lamentation arise at night in thy abode; may crying women enter other houses than thine; may thou never admit forrow to thy breast; may thou prosper in thy husband's house, blest with his survival, and viewing cheerful children. 5. I lift barrenness, the death of children, fin, and every other evil, as I would lift a chaplet off thy head; and I confign the fetters [of premature death] to thy foes. 6. May death depart from me, and immortality come; may (YAMA) the child of the sun render me fearless. Death! follow a different path from that by which we proceed, and from that which the gods travel. To thee, who feeft, and who hearest, I call, saying, Hurt not our offspring, nor our progenitors: and may this oblation be efficacious." The bridegroom then presents oblations, naming the three worlds, separately and conjointly, and offers either four or five oblations to fire, and to the moon. The bride and bridegroom then rife up, and he passes from her lest side to her right, and makes her join her hands in a hollow form.

THE

entering the house, he causes the bride to be clothed with a new waistcloth and scarf, while he recites the subjoined prayers. "May those generous wo-men, who spun and wound the thread, and who wove the warp and weft of this cloth, generoully clothe thee to old age. Long-lived woman! put on this rai-ment." "Clothe her: Invest her with apparel! Prolong her life to great age. May thou live a hundred years. As long as thou livest, amiable woman! revere [that is, carefully preserve] beauty and wealth." The first of these prayers is nearly the same with that which is used by the followers of the Yajush when the scarf is put on the bride's shoulder. It is preceded by a different one, which is recited while the waistcloth is wrapped round her: " May thou reach old age. Put on this raiment. Be lovely : be chafte. Live a hundred years. Invite [that is, preserve and obtain] beauty, wealth, and male offspring. Damsel! put on this apparel." Afterwards the following prayer is recited: "May the affembled gods unit our hearts: May the waters unite them. May air unite us: May the Creator unite us: May the god of love unite us."

Bur, according to the followers of the Sámavéda; the bridegroom, immediately after the scarf has been placed on the bride's shoulder, conducts her towards the sacrificial fire, saying, "Sóma [the regent of the moon] gave her to a heavenly quirister: the Gandharba gave her to the regent of hie: fire has given her to me, and with her wealth and male offspring." The bride then goes to the western side of the fire, and recites the following prayer, while she steps on a mat made of Virana grais, and covered with silk: "May our lord assign me the path by which I may reach

^{*} Gt N'AVISHN'U here explains Gandharba by the word A ditye, which may signify the sun, or a deity in general.

⁺ Andropogon aromaticum, or muricatum.

The oblations and prayers directed by the Yajurvéda previous to this period of the folemnity, are very different from those which have been here inserted from the Samáveda; and some of the ceremonies which will be subsequently noticed, are anticipated by the priests who follow the Yajush.

TWELVE oblations are made with as many prayers. 1. May this oblation be efficacious, and happily conveyed to that being who is fire in the form of a celeftial quirifter, who is accompanied by truth, and whose abode is truth; may he cherish our holy knowledge, and our valour. 2. Efficacious be this oblation to those delightful plants which are the nymphs of that being who is fire in the form of a celeftial quirifter, who is accompanied by truth, and whose abode is truth. 3. and 4. The foregoing prayers are thus varied: "To that being who is the fun, in the form of a celestial quirister, and who consists wholly of the Samaveda. Those enlivening rays which are the nymphs of that fun. 5. and 6. That being who is the moon in the form of a celeftial quirifter, and who is a ray of the fun, and named Su/hmana. Those afterisms which are the nymphs of the moon, and are called Bhccuri.* 7. and 8. That being who is air, constantly moving, and travelling every where. Those waters which are the nymphs of air, and are termed invigorating. 9. and 10. That being who is the folemn facrifice in the form of a celestial quirifter, who cherishes all beings, and whole pace is elegant. Those facrificial fees which are the nymphs of the folemn facrifice, and are named thanklgivings. 11. and 12. That being who is mind in the form of a celestial quirister, who is the supreme Ruler of creatures, and who is the fabricator of the universe. Those

^{*} This term is not expounded by the commentator. Bha signifies an asterism; but the meaning of the compound term is not obvious. Sushman'a bears some affinity to Shusumna, mentioned in a former essay; but neither of these names is explained in the commentaries which I have consulted.

Those holy strains (Rich and Sáman) who are the nymphs of mind, and are named the means of attaining wishes."

THIRTEEN oblations are next presented, during the recital of as many portions of a single text.
May the Supreme Ruler of creatures, who is glorious in his victories over [hostile] armies, grant victory to Indra, the regent of rain: all creatures humbly bow to him, for he is terrible: to him are oblations due; may he grant me victory, knowledge, reslection, regard, self-rule, skill, understanding, power, [returns of] the conjunction and opposition of the sun and moon, and holy texts. (Vrihat and Rathantara)."*

EIGHTEEN oblations are then offered, while as many texts are meditated; they differ only in the name of the deity that is invoked. 1. " May fire, lord of [living] beings, protect me in respect of holiness, valour, and prayer, and in regard to ancient privileges, to this folemn rite, and to this invocation of deities. 2. May INDRA, lord or regent of the eldest, (that is, of the best of beings,) protect me, &c. 3. YAMA, lord of the earth. 4. Air, lord of the sky. 5. The sun, lord of heaven. 6. The moon, lord of stars. 7. VRIHASPATI, lord [that is, preceptor] of BRAHMA, [and other deities.] 8. Mi-TRA, (the fun,) lord of true beings. 9. VARUN'A, lord of waters. 10. The ocean, lord of rivers. 11. Food, lord of tributary powers. 12. Sóma, (the moon,) lord of plants. 13. SAVITRI, (the generative fun,) lord of pregnant females. 14. RUDRA, (S'IVA,) lord of [deities that bear the shape of] cattle." 15. "The fabricator of the universe, lord of forms." 16. "VISHN'U, lord of mountains." 17. " Winds, (Maruts,) lords of (gánas) fets of divinities." 18. "Fathers, grandfathers, remoter ancestors.

^{*} Texts of the Samaveda so named.

ancestors, more distant progenitors, their parents, and

grandsires."

OBLATIONS are afterwards made with prayers corresponding to those which have been already cited from the Sámavéda. 1. " May fire come, first among the gods, &c." 2. "May the domestick perpetual fire guard her, &c." 3. "Fire, who dost protect fuch as perform facrifices! grant us all bleffings in heaven and on earth: grant unto us that various and excellent wealth which is produced on this earth and in heaven." 4. "O best of luminaries! come, show us an easy path, that our lives may be uninjured. May death depart from me, and immortality come. May the child of the sun render me fearless." 5. " Death! follow a different path, &c."

THE bride offers the oblations of rice mixed with leaves of S'ami,* letting fall the offerings on the fire in the manner before mentioned, and with the same prayers, but recited in a reverfed order, and a little varied. 1. "The damfel has worshipped the generous sun in the form of fire. May that generous fun never separate her from this husband." 66 This woman, casting the rice into the fire, fays, May my lord be long-lived: May my kinfmen reach old age." 3. " I cast this rice into the fire, that it may become a cause of thy prosperity. May fire assent to my union with thee. +

* Adenanthera acaleata.

According to the followers of the Yajurvéda, the bridegroom now takes the bride's right hand, reciting a text which will be subsequently quoted. The bride then steps on a stone while this text is recited: " Ascend this stone: be firm like this Subdue fuch as entertain hostile designs against me, and repel them." The following hymn

is

[†] This version is conformable to a different commentary, from one which was followed in the former translation.

is then chanted. "Charming SARASWATÍ, swift as a mare! whom I celebrate in face of this universe, protect this [solemn rite.] O thou! in whom the elements were produced, in whom this universe was framed. I now will fing that hymn [the nuptial text] which constitutes the highest glory of women." The bride and bridegroom afterwards walk round the fire, while the following text is recited: " Fire! thou didst first espouse this semale fun, [this woman, beautiful like the fun:] now let a human being again espouse her by thy means. Give her, O fire! with offspring, to a [human] huf-band." The remainder of the rice is then dropped

into the fire as an oblation to the god of love.

The next ceremony is the bride's stepping feven Reps: it is the most material of all the nuptial rites: for the marriage is complete and irrevocable, fo foon as she has taken the feventh step, and not fooner. She is conducted by the bridegroom, and directed by him to step successively into seven circles, while the following texts are uttered. 1. 66 May Vishn'u cause thee to take one step for the sake of obtaining food." 2. 66 May Vishn'u cause thee to take one step for the sake of obtaining strength." 3. "Three steps for the sake of solemn acts of religion." 4. "Four steps for the sake of obtaining happiness." 5. "Five steps for the sake of cattle." 6. "Six steps for the fake of increase of wealth." 7. " Seven steps for the sake of obtaining priests to perform sacrifices."* The bridegroom then addresses the bride, "Having completed seven steps, he my companion. May I become thy affociate. May none interrupt thy asfociation with me. May fuch as are disposed to promote

[.] In the Yajurvéda the texts are varied, so that the third step is for increase of wealth, and the sixth for obtaining happy seasous.

promote our happiness, confirm thy affociation with me." The bridegroom then addresses the spectators: "This woman is auspicious: approach and view her: and having conferred [by your good wishes] auspicious fortune on her, depart to your respective abodes."

THEN the bridegroom's friend, who stood near the fire bearing a jar of water, advances to the spot where the seventh step was completed, and pours water on the bridegroom's head, and asterwards on the bride's, while a prayer above-mentioned is recited:

"May waters and all the gods cleanse our hearts: may air do so; may the Creator do so: may the divine instructions unite our hearts."*

THE bridegroom then puts his left hand under the bride's hands, which are joined together in a hollow form, and taking her right hand in his, recites the fix following texts. 1. " I take thy hand for the fake of good fortune, that thou mayst become old with me, thy husband: may the generous, mighty and prolific fun render thee a matron, that I may be a householder." 2. " Be gentle in thy aspect, and loyal to thy husband: be fortunate in cattle; amiable in thy mind, and beautiful in thy person: be mother of surviving sons; be assiduous at the [five] facraments; be cheerful; and bring prosperity to our bipeds and quadrupeds." 3. " May the Lord of creatures grant us progeny, even unto old age; may the fun render that progeny conspicuous. Auspicious deities have given thee to me. Enter thy husband's abode; and bring health to our bipeds and quadrupeds." 4. "O INDRA, who pourest forth rain! render this woman fortunate, and the mother of children: grant her ten fons; give her eleven protectors." 5. "Be submissive to thy husband's father, to his mother, to his sister, and to

[•] It is here translated according to the gloss of Gun'a Vishn'u. In the former version I followed the commentary of HELAYUD'HA.

to his brothers." 6. "Give thy heart to my religious duties: may thy mind follow mine; be thou confentient to my fpeech. May VRIHASPATI unite thee unto me."

THE followers of the Yajurvéda enlarge the first prayer, and omit the rest, some of which, however, they employ at other periods of the folemnity. "1 take thy hand for the fake of good fortune, that thou mayst become old with me, thy husband: may the deities, namely, the divine fun (aryaman'), and the prolific being (favitri,) and the god of love, give thee as a matron unto me, that I may be a householder. I need the goddess of prosperity: Thou art she: Thou art the goddess of prosperity. I need her. I am the Saman, [véda.] Thou art the Rich, [véda.] I am the sky: Thou art the earth. Come; let us marry: let us hold conjugal intercourse: let us procreate offspring: let us obtain fons. May they reach old age. May we, being affectionate, glorious, and well disposed, see during a hundred years, live a hundred years, and hear a hundred years."

According to the ritual, which conforms to the Sámavéda, the bridegroom fits down near the fire with the bride, and finishes this part of the ceremony by making oblations, while he names the three worlds feverally and conjointly. The taking of the bride's hand in marriage is thus completed. In the evening of the same day, so soon as the stars appear, the bride fits down on a bull's hide, which must be of a red colour, and must be placed with the neck towards the east, and the hair upwards. The bridegroom fits down neat her, makes oblations while he names the three worlds as usual; and then makes fix oblations with the following prayers, and each time pours the remainder of the clarified butter on the bride's head. 1. "I obviate by this full oblation all ill marks in the lines [of thy hands,] in thy \mathbf{x} Vol. VII.

thy eye-lashes, and in the spots [on thy body]."

2. "I obviate by this sull oblation, all the ill marks in thy hair; and whatever is sinsul in thy looking, or in thy crying."

3. "I obviate by this sull oblation, all that may be sinsul in thy temper, in thy speaking, and in thy laughing."

4. "I obviate by this full oblation, all the ill marks in thy teeth, and in the dark intervals between them; in thy hands, and in thy seet."

5. "I obviate by this sull oblation, all the ill marks on thy thighs, on thy privy parts, on thy haunches, and on the lineaments of thy sigure."

6. "Whatever natural or accidental evil marks were on all thy limbs, I have obviated all such marks by these full oblations of clarified butter. May this oblation be efficacious."

THE bride and bridegroom rife up; and he shews her the polar star, reciting the following text: "Heaven is stable; the earth is stable; this universe is stable; these mountains are stable; may this woman be stable in her husband's family." The bride salutes the bridegroom, naming herself and family, and adding a respectful interjection. The bridegroom replies, "Be long-lived and happy." Matrons then pour water, mixed with leaves, upon the bride and bridegroom, out of jars, which had been previously placed on an altar prepared for the purpose; and the bridegroom again makes oblations with the names of the worlds, by way of closing this part of the ceremony.

The bridegroom afterwards eats food prepared without factitious falt. During this meal he recites the following prayers: "I bind with the fetters of food thy heart and mind to the gem [of my foul]; I bind them with nouriflment, which is the thread of life; I bind them with the knot of truth." 2. "May that heart which is yours, become my heart; and

^{*} Dhr.wa, the pole, also signifies stable, fixed, steady, firm.

and this heart, which is mine, become thy heart."
3. "Since food is the bond of life, I bind thee therewith." The remainder of the food must be then

given to the bride.

During the three subsequent days, the married couple must abstain from factitious salt, live chastely and austerely, and sleep on the ground. On the following day, that is, on the fourth exclusively, the bridegroom conducts the bride to his own house, on a carriage, or other suitable conveyance. He recites the following text when she ascends the carriage: "O wife of the fun! ascend this vehicle, resembling the beautiful blossoms of the cotton tree, + and butea, + tinged with various tints, and coloured like gold; well constructed; furnished with good wheels; and the source of ambrosia, [that is, of blessings:] bring happiness to thy husband." Proceeding with his bride, he, or some other person for him, recites the following text on their coming to a cross road: "May robbers, who infest the road, remain ignorant [of this journey:] may the married couple reach a' place of security, and difficult access, by easy roads; and may foes keep aloof."

ALIGHTING from the carriage, the bridegroom leads the bride into the house, chanting the hymn called Vámadēvya. Matrons welcome the bride, and make her sit down on a bull's hide, of the same colour, and placed in the same manner, as before. The bridegroom then recites the following prayer: "May kine here produce numerous young; may horses, and

^{*}The Muslemans of India do not scruple to horrow from the Hindus superstitious ceremonies that are celebrated with festivity. They take an active part in the gambols of the Hóli, and even solicit the favours of the Indian Plutus, at the Diwali. The bridal procession, on the fourth day, with all the sports and gambols of the Chaut'hi (Chauturt'hi), is evidently copied from the similar case toms of the Hindus. In Bengal the Muslemans have even adopted the premature marriage of infant brides and bridegrooms.

⁺ Bombax heptaphyllum.

Butea frondosu.

and human beings do so; and may the deity fit here, by whose favour sacrifices are accomplished with gifts a thousand fold.

The women then place a young child in the bride's lap; they put roots of lotos, or else fruit of different kinds, in his hand. The bridegroom takes up the child, and then prepares a facrificial fire in the usual manner, and makes eight oblations with the following prayers, preceded and followed by the usual oblations to the three worlds. 1. "May there be cheerfulness here." 2. "May thine own [kindred] be kind here." 3. "May there be pleasure here." 4. "Sport thou here." 5. "May there be kindness here with me." 6. "May thine own [kindred] be here, benevolent towards me." 7. "May there be here delight towards me." 8. "Be thou here joyous towards me." The bride then salutes her sather-in-law, and the other relatives of her husband.

AFTERWARDS the bridegroom prepares another sa-crificial fire, and sits down with the bride on his right hand. He makes twenty oblations with the following prayers, preceded and followed as usual, by oblations to the three worlds. The remainder of each ladleful is thrown into a jar of water, which is afterwards poured on the bride's head. expiator of evil! thou dost atone evils for the gods themselves. I, a priest, approach thee, desirous of foliciting thee to remove any finful taint in the beauty of this woman." 2. "Air, expiator of evil! &c." 3. "Moon, expiator of evil! &c." 4. "Sun, expiator of evil! &c." 5. "Fire, air, moon, and fun, expiators of evil! ye do atone evils for the gods. I, a prieft, approach thee, defirous of foliciting thee to remove any finful taint in the beauty of this woman." 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, "Soliciting thee to remove any thing in her person which might destroy her husband." 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, " Any thing in

in her person which might make her negligent of cattle."

THE priests who use the Yajurvéda, make only five oblations, with as many prayers addrest to fire. air, the fun, the moon, and the Gandharba, or celestial quirister; praying them to remove any thing in the person of the bride, which might be injurious to her husband, to her offspring, to cattle, to the household, and to honour and glory. The following text is recited while the water is poured on the bride's head: "That blameable portion of thy person, which would have been injurious to thy husband, thy offspring, thy cattle, thy household, and thy honour, I render destructive of paramours's may thy body [thus cleared from evil] reach old age with me." The bride is then fed with food prepared in a caldron, and the following text is recited: I unite thy breath with my breath; thy bones with my bones; thy flesh with my slesh; and thy skin with my fkin."

THE ceremonies of which the nuptial folemnity confilts may be here recapitulated. The bridegroom goes in procession to the house where the bride's father resides, and is there welcomed as a guest. The bride is given to him by her father in the form usual at every solemn donation, and their hands are bound together with grass. He clothes the bride with an upper and lower garment; and the skirts of her mantle and his are tied together. The bridegroom makes oblations to fire, and the bride drops rice on it as an oblation. The bridegroom folemnly takes her hand in marriage. She treads on a stone and mullar. They walk round the fire. The bride steps seven times, conducted by the bridegroom; and he then dismisses the spectators, the marriage being now complete and irrevocable. In the evening of the same day, the bride sits down on a bull's hide, and the bridegroom points out to her the polar star as an emblem of flability. They then partake of a meal. The bridegroom remains three days at the house of the bride's father. On the fourth day, he conduits her to his own house in folemn procession. She is there welcomed by his smored; and the solemnity ends with observors to here.

And is Mindus a give is married before the age of pubert. The law wen induces the delay of her marriage beyond the tenth part. For this reason, and because the brangroom for may be an infant, it is rate that a me lage from the confummated until long where to be seen to be recital of prayers on this occasion confustes it in religious ceremony, and it is the first of those that are versormed for the purpose of explaining the sinful taint which a child is an applied to contrast in the womb of his mother. They shall be accorded in a suture essay.

On the practice of immature motion, a subject fuggested in the proceeding paragraph, it may be remarked, that it arises from a laborable motive; from a sense of duty incombent on a souther, who considers as a debt the obligation of providing a suitable match for his daughter. This notion, which is strongly inculcated by Hindu legislators, is forcibly impressed on the minds of parents. But in their seal to dispose of a daughter in marriage, they do not perhaps sufficiently consult her domestic selicity. By the death of an infant husband, she is condemned to virgin widowhood for the period of her life. If both survive, the habitual bickerings of their infancy are prolonged in perpetual discord.

Numerous restrictions in the assortment of matches, impose on parents this necessity of embracing the earliest opportunity of assiancing their children to six companions. The intermarriages of different classes, formerly permitted, with certain limitations, are now wholly forbidden. The prohibited

degrees

degrees extend to the fixth of affinity: and even the bearing of the fame family name is a sufficient cause

of impediment.

To conclude the subject of nuptials, I shall only add, that eight forms are noticed by *Hindu* legislators. (Menu, c. 3.) But one only, which has been here described from the Indian rituals, is now used.

X. ...

An Account of a Method for extending a Geographical Survey across the PENINSULA of INDIA.

By Brigade Major Lambton.

Communicated by Permission of the Right Honourable the Governor of Fort St. George, in Council.

HAVING long reflected on the great advantage to general geography, that would be derived from extending a survey across the Peninsula of India, for the purpose of determining the positions of the principal geographical points; and feeing that, by the success of the British arms during the late glorious campaign, a district of country is acquired, which not only opens a free communication with the Malabar coast, but, from its nature, affords a most admirable means of connecting that with the coast of Coromandel by an uninterrupted series of triangles, and of continuing that series to an almost unlimited extent in every other direction; I was induced to communicate my ideas to the Right Honourable the Governor in Council at Madras, who has fince been pleased to appoint me to conduct that service, and has supported me with a liberality by which alone it could be carried into execution.

IT is scarcely necessary to say what the advantage will be, of afcertaining the great geographical features of a country upon correct mathematical principles; for then, after surveys of different districts have been made, in the usual mode, they can be combined into one general map. One furveyor is employed in a district, at Sera; and another in

the district of Chittledroog. They both have a reference to those particular stations, and their surveys, with respect to them, may be relatively correct: and if Sera and Chittledroog be laid down right, their respective surveys will fall into their right places on the globe.

Ir will be unnecessary to state to the Society, the impersect methods that have generally been practised by supposing the earth to be a stat; and yet it has been on this supposition that surveys have been made in general, and corrected by astronomical observation. But although that method of correction may answer for determining the position of places at a great distance, where an error of sive or six minutes will be of no very great consequence, yet, in laying down the longitudes of places progressively, that are not more than twenty miles from one another, it is evident that errors of such magnitude are not to be overlooked; and an error, even of one mile, would place objects in situations widely different from that which they actually hold on the sace of the globe.

Ir we confider the earth as an exact sphere, we should naturally advert to spherical computation: and having a base actually measured, and reduced to the level, it would be a part of a great circle; while the horizontal angle would be the angle made by two great circles, interfecting each other at the point where the angle was taken. On this hypothesis, the process of extending a survey, would be reduced to as great a degree of implicity as by the method of plane triangles; for then the length of a degree on the meridian could be eafily obtained by the celestial arc, and would be equal to a degree in any other direction. The radius of curvature, or the seini-diameter of the earth, might also be easily deduced from thence; and being every where the same, the chord of any arc, or the direct distance between two objects subtending that arc, could be computed without the trouble of correcting the ob**ferved**

ferved angles. The difference of longitude of any two points might be as easily had; for, knowing the arc between them, (which would always correfpond with a colestial arc,) and the co-latitudes of the two places, the angle at the pole, or difference of

longitude, might be found.

Bur fince the crith is not a fphere, but an oblate spheroid, and differing confiderably from a sphere, it becomes necessary to determine the length of a degree on the meridian, and a decree at right angle. to that mendian, making the point of interlection of the meridian and its perpendicular, the middle point of each degree. Now, in determining the measure of those degrees, in the first measurement, or bale his cannot be had in the meridian, two other objects and he choice therein, and ther distance comparts paponometrically, and then compared with the celedia are. But here the operation. for obtaining the d lance will be attended with fome trouble, or account of its being necessary to calculate the charactof the arcs, and the difficulty of determining the angles made to these choids it a fufficient degree of accuracy; for here we are obliged to affirm, data, and proceed by an approximating method. And, iff, we must either suppose the earth to be a fphere, and, by taking the three angles made by the interfections of three great circles of that sphere, find the sides in degrees and minutes . then take double the fines of half the arcs, or the chords, and there will be had the three fides of a plane triangle, defined in parts of the radius. With these three sides determine the three angles, and these are the angles for calculating the direct distances. Hence, by knowing the base in sathoms, the chord subtending that base (or arc) may also be had in fathoms, by computing from the radius of the affumed sphere, which we must suppose to be of fome given magnitude; then having the length of the chord in fathoms, and the angles corrected as

above, the other chords can be obtained in fathoms alfo.

On ad. Since the chords of small arcs differ very little from those arcs, it will be better to find the diffance of the objects from one another by plane migonomean, the of hing one I lance. Then we mult hoppole that to be a climfold, whose two daments he each other a given rano.

From this and the degree on the meridian to be utility the continuous and the meridian to any given direction and the morndran, many bechad. as will be been bout and bat relie will anable us to allow the appearant, manufer of congress and minutes to the control of a control of the thank, which may then be control of a control of the transfer one. It is not expensed one. have a transfer and he are evidented from radio of convarions, and only these are the analysis of the conversion of the same angles must be only groups are to a sprainca. M. Di Loning he government of a critical the angles made by the choice of two error under their circumflances. having the ares theme wes and the horizontal angle given. The formula is as follows: Let #=angle made by the choic, : a = the horizontal or observed angle; D and a the arcs, in degrees, numites, &c. Then if x = the correction to be applied to the horizontal angle, A will be equal a-x. And the first approximate value of $x = -\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a$. v. s. (D+d)The fecond approximate value = $-\left(\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a. v. s.\right)$ $\frac{1}{2}(D+d) - \frac{1}{2}\cot(\frac{1}{2}a)$. v. s. $\frac{1}{2}(D-d)$ which is fufficiently near for this purpose; whence $A=a-(\frac{1}{2}\tan \frac{1}{2}a \cdot v \cdot s \cdot \frac{1}{2}(D+d)-\frac{1}{2}\cot \frac{1}{2}a \cdot v \cdot s \cdot \frac{1}{2}(D-d))$. And if greater exactness be required, it will be A=a- $(\frac{1}{2} \tan . \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2} \overline{D+d} - \frac{1}{2} \cot . \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2} \overline{D-d}) - v. s. x. \cot .$ Where $x. is = -(\frac{1}{2} \tan . \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2}$ $\overline{D+d} = \frac{1}{2}$ cot. a. v. s. $\frac{1}{2}$ D-d, its fecond approximate value.—And the last term will change its fign to affirmative, if a be greater than 90°. A'demonliration

stration of the above formula has been given by the Astronomer Royal, and may be seen in the Phil. Transactions for the year 1797, p. 450.

HAVING, by this method, got the angles made by the chords to very near the truth, the rest, with respect to distances, is evident. For the chord of the measured arc (or base) may be had, since by computing the lengths of arcs in any direction, on the ellipsoid, the radius of curvature of that arc is likewise had, and thence the chord: and that chord forms the side of a plane triangle, from which, and the corrected angles, all the data may be had for proceeding upon each of the sides of the first plane triangle.

Now, to determine any portion of a degree on the earth's surface in the meridian, two points may be taken therein, and the direct distance between them ascertained by the above method. Then, by taking the zenith distance of a known star, when passing the meridian at each extremity of the distance, the celestial arc becomes known in degrees, minutes, &c. from which the terrestrial arc between the two objects is had in degrees, minutes, &c. also: and having determined the chord in sathoms, the arc may likewise be determined in sathoms, which being compared with the degrees, minutes, &c. the value of a degree is thereby obtained in sathoms.

The length of a degree, at right angles to the meridian, is also easily known by spherical computation, having the latitude of the point of intersection, and the latitude of an object any where in a direction perpendicular to the meridian at that point. For then the arc between these two points, and the two celestial arcs or co-latitudes, will form a right-angled triangle, two sides of which are given to find the third, which is the arc in question. And this will apply either to the sphere or spheroid. That arc being known in degrees and minutes, and the

above, the other chords can be obtained in fathoms alfo.

On ad. Since the chords of small arcs differ very little from those arcs, it will be better to find the diffance of the objects from one another by plane migonomean, the of hing one I lance. Then we mult hoppole that to be a climfold, whose two daments he each other a given rano.

From this and the degree on the meridian to be utility the continuous and the meridian to any given direction and the morndran, many bechad. as will be been bout and bat relie will anable us to allow the appearant, manufer of congress and minutes to the control of a control of the thank, which may then be control of a control of the transfer one. It is not expensed one. have a transfer and he are evidented from radio of convarions, and only these are the analysis of the conversion of the same angles must be only groups are to a sprainca. M. Di Loning he government of a critical the angles made by the choice of two error under their circumflances. having the ares theme wes and the horizontal angle given. The formula is as follows: Let #=angle made by the choic, : a = the horizontal or observed angle; D and a the arcs, in degrees, numites, &c. Then if x = the correction to be applied to the horizontal angle, A will be equal a-x. And the first approximate value of $x = -\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a$. v. s. (D+d)The fecond approximate value = $-\left(\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a. v. s.\right)$ $\frac{1}{2}(D+d) - \frac{1}{2}\cot(\frac{1}{2}a)$. v. s. $\frac{1}{2}(D-d)$ which is fufficiently near for this purpose; whence $A=a-(\frac{1}{2}\tan \frac{1}{2}a \cdot v \cdot s \cdot \frac{1}{2}(D+d)-\frac{1}{2}\cot \frac{1}{2}a \cdot v \cdot s \cdot \frac{1}{2}(D-d))$. And if greater exactness be required, it will be A=a- $(\frac{1}{2} \tan . \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2} \overline{D+d} - \frac{1}{2} \cot . \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2} \overline{D-d}) - v. s. x. \cot .$ Where $x. is = -(\frac{1}{2} \tan . \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2}$ $\overline{D+d} = \frac{1}{2}$ cot. a. v. s. $\frac{1}{2}$ D-d, its fecond approximate value.—And the last term will change its fign to affirmative, if a be greater than 90°. A'demonliration

values of the angles made by the chords, by doing which, we can come nearer the truth, than by supposing them to be spherical; and though these arcs may not to precisely correct, yet it has been found that a trible to deviation from the truth will not fen-

fibly affect the angles.

It may be taken observe to but we are not certain either of the rang of the certific dictions, or of its being an empford. We have affunded that Cgure, and have drawn our in the from the annuale of different in aurements made to dinerent parallels, though among themselves they appear contradictory but we mult adopt them until better measurement. can be made to enable us to come pearer the truth. Should the figure of the east: prove to be the ellipfoid, and the ratio of the equatorial mame are to the polar axis become known, a colettor are woned efforth a datum in any assigned latitude, by which, and the objerved angles corrected, the direct distances might be comprised, and also the detance of an object from a so own meridian and to nerpendiculate and consequences its longitude and satitude. But thould the earth prove to be neither at ellipfoid, nor a figure generated by any particular curve of known properties, but a figure whose mendional section is bounded by no law of curvature, then we can obtain nothing until we have an actual measurement to be applied as has been already mentioned.

Thus much I have thought necessary to premise, that the general principles of the work I have before me may be understood; principles, which, I believe, have never been applied in Indian geography, though in England sufficient has been done to manifest their perfection, and to give those gentlemen, who have applied them, a distinguished reputation in the annals of science: and I own, that it was from reading the details of their operations I was first led to consider the subject. The publications of the late

GEN. Roy, relative to his measurements on Hounflow Heath and Romney Marsh, lith his continuations of triangles, and the later accounts of a trigonometrical survey along the southern and eastern coasts of England, by Liett. Coi. Williams, Capt. Mudge, and Me. Daley, are works which I consider as a transper

With respect to the plan of all operations, had I been possess of the institution pattern to the have though the lient's accorded in this zontal angle . Inpute been now after a been comeswhere near the eattern coall, one, on ac our ways being a more regular country, a la hearer the leve of the fea, to vinch all leture mediatements and oftances multi-more mucho, and to have I could have computer me onlymous from the Madra objectescomple There was because their between form bratebility of gesting a measurement in the mercular, or io near it. us. a sab que directions might have been accurately returned to the and tent would be a means of at once that are, the length is degree or the meridian. ...: . a legiee has never yet been meafured in the time ear it is no trilling circumstance to the first many a computing the ratio of the earth's diameter. The army it to be an ellipsoid. And as I have the tame kind of chain, made by the fame incomparable artific, Mr. RAMSDEN, as that with which COLONEL WILLIAMS and CAPTAIN Mudge measured their bases, from a comparison between two measurements made in parallels so distant from each other, with instruments of the same kind, and reduced to the same standard temperature, there is some reason to hope that computations made from fuch measurements, may come nearer the truth than any other.

However, this is an object to which I look forward when those instruments arrive which govern-

ment has been pleased to authorise me to send for. At present it seemed most desirable that I should begin in Myfore, and endeavour to forward the furveys of that country. Having made a first measurement there, I think, with the instruments I at prefent poffess, it will be best not to extend my operations too far from some assumed meridian, as I can depend more upon meridional celestial arcs than upon any computed oblique ones. The instrument I have for taking zenith distances, is a zenith sector of five feet radius, made by Mr. RAMSDEN, with a micrometer scale, that defines nearly one-tenth of a second. With this I can determine two parallels of latitude to be depended on, between which to compute by terrestrial measure the relative situations of intermediate places as to latitude. The instrument with which I take horizontal angles is a circular transit instrument. made by Mr. TROUGHTON, whose horizontal limb is only eight inches radius, without a micrometer, but which is graduated to 10"; and though it is an excellent instrument, correct and easy in its adjustments, yet its powers are not sufficient for taking horizontal angles where they are to be reduced to the angles made by the chords.

SECTION I.

Containing an Account of the Measurement of a Base Line on the Table Land of the Mysore Country near Bangalore.

I MENTIONED above my reasons for making a measurement in the Mysore country. This measurement may, however, not be thought so satisfactory as if it had been done near the sea-coast, on account

of not being certain as to the exact height above the level of the sea, fince that height was determined by corresponding barometrical observations made Madras, and at each extremity of the base, and I am well aware that those results will be exceptionable. But I was careful to found my computations on those observations only which were made when a perfect uniformity in the state of the atmosphere had existed for several days together; that is, when the barometer and thermometer at each place, and at the same hour of the day, had suffered scarcely any sensible variation for a confiderable time. And fince the quantity to be deducted from the base on account of the height is little more than 8, 5 feet, upon the whole, any error that might arise in correcting for the temperature and density of the atmosphere, would be but trifling; I shall therefore, for the present, rest satisffied until the height can be determined trigonometrically, and proceed to give an account of the operations of the measurement, and of the apparatus made use of.

CHAIN.

The chain is of bliftered steel, constructed by Mr. Ramsden, and is precisely alike, in every respect, with that used by General Roy in measuring his base of verification on Romney Marsh. It consists of 40 links, of $2\frac{1}{2}$ seet each, measuring, in the whole, 100 seet. It has two brass register heads, with a scale of six inches to each; these scales slide in the brass heads, and are moved by a singer-screw, for the purpose of adjusting exactly the two extremities of the chain when extended: in short, every part of it is the same as the one above-mentioned, which has been sully described in the Philosophical Transactions of 1790, and therefore it is unnecessary to say more on the construction of that instrument here.

It appears from the best information i have respecting it, that it was measured off by the brass standard when the thermometer stood at 62°, and was, in that temperature, exactly 100 feet in length.

FROM the want of a proper standard scale and beam compasses. I would not undertake to determine its length, compared with brass; because I did not think that laving off any determined number of feet from the fliders in the register heads, and by a pair of common compasses, could be done with sufficient accuracy, fo as to enable me to find out at what degree of temperature the chain had measured 100 feet by the brass scale. And as I had been informed by DOCTOR DINWIDDIE, from whom it was purchased, that, to the bell of his recollection, it had been adjusted to 100 seet at the standard temperature of 62°, I therefore rested satisfied until further information may be obtained respecting it; and it is probable, that any correction on account of temperature, will not amount to more than two or three feet; and an error of that magnitude in a length of near 71 miles, cannot be of very great moment in geography, which is the principal object at present.

THERE is another circumstance it may be necesfary to mention with respect to the chain: from the same want of a standard measure I have not attempted to determine its wear; but I observe that in the measurement of the base of verification on Salisbury Plain, the chain used there was very little affected by being in use about seven weeks. And in order to prevent the wear as much as possible, I allotted twenty coolies, that is one to every two links, whose sole business it was to lift out the chain, and lay it on the ground whilst the coffers were moved forward, and then to replace it when they were ready. All this was done with the greatest care, and always by the word given them, that the motion might be as triffing as possible. This mode was practifed during the whole measurement; so that I am in hopes

hopes no very ferious error can arise from the wear of the chain.

COFFERS.

Inose were of twenty feet each in length, fix inches wide in the middle, three at the extremities, and about four inches deep: the fides were near feven inches, and puffed below the bottom two inches: they were not of the dimensions of those of General Roy, on account of the difficulty of procuring boards for the purpose. The same difficulty obliged me to be tausshed with five in place of sisteen; but as I had a great number of people with me, I apprehended no great difficulty in taking out the chain, and laying it on the ground, while the coffers were moved forward.

FICKETS.

Twilly firing pickets, of three inches diameter. hooped and shod with iron, were made use of: they were of different lengths, from three to four feet: on the top of each picket was placed a piece of very hard feafoned wood, eight inches in length, and four in breadth; on the under fide of which was fixed, with two screws, a hoop of iron, fitted to receive the one on the picket, and to fcrew firmly upon it by a fmall screw on the side, when placed properly in the line. This simple contrivance seems to answer the intended purpose for receiving and supporting the ends of the coffers: the two pickets on which the brass register heads were placed, are in all respects the same as those described by GENERAL ROY. There is also the same apparatus for the drawing-post and weight post; only in place of the iron ferrule, the brass clamp and pulley are fixed upon pieces of very Υg hard. hard, well-feasoned wood, in a manner so simple as to render a description unnecessary.

I FOUND, however, in the course of practice, that tripods, with elevating screws in the centre, answered much better than the pickets for the intermediate ends of the coffers, particularly as a very great part of the ground was hard and stony. Those tripods are described by General Roy. Those which I used, as I had not the m ans of getting better, were no more than the common wooden press screw, made to move up and down by a semale screw with handles; the top of the tripod being a thick piece of wood for the screw to pass through, with another piece of wood three or sour inches below that, to keep it steady: but a boxed tube to receive the screw is to be preserved.

BONING TELESCOPE.

For the purpose of fixing the objects in allignement, I used the circular transit instrument, which answers remarkably well, both for that purpose, and for laying off the principal elevations and deprefsions of the different hypothenuses; but when the pickets are to be placed so that the coffers may be laid in the line of the hypothenuse, I made use of one of Mr. RAMSDEN's spirit levels; but in place of using its three legs, I took them off, and placed the telescope, with its adjusting screws, upon a tripod, having an elevating screw in the centre, passing through a tube with a fmall iron screw to keep it firm. On the top of this elevating screw was fixed a piece of board about ten inches square: upon that again was placed another piece, which was made to move in a groove by a finger screw; and upon this moveable piece the levelling telefcope, with its apparatus, was fixed, having its axis at right angles to the direction of the groove, fo that by the finger fcrew it could easily be moved to the right or left. and brought into the direction of the allignement.

A SMALL square picket, or boning-rod, with a piece ten inches in length, fixed at right angles, and made to slide up and down, and fasten by a small fcrew, was placed at the further extremity of the hypothenuse, and the sliding piece put at a convenient height: that piece, therefore, marked the angle of elevation or depression. The height of the axis of the transit circle, (when that instrument was used,) having been taken by a plumb line, as well as the point directly under its centre; then having marked out one hundred feet, by a common measure, exactly in the allignement, I removed the transit, and placed the tripod, with its apparatus, precifely on the spot which marked its centre; and measured its height above that fpot, comparing the centre on which the levelling telescope moves, with the tranverse axis of the transit, (having previously determined the most convenient height for the coffers to be from the ground.) Then I took the exact measure of the space between the axis of the transit and that of the levelling telescope, and applied it to the boning-rod at the extremity of the hypothenuse, and made a mark, at that distance, below the cross slider. The level was then adjusted by the screws and spirit level, and its centre brought into the allignement; which being done, the axis of the telescope was elevated, or depressed, until the cross-wire corresponded with the mark on the boning-rod.

If the angle of the hypothenuse be beyond the limits of the vertical screw of the level, the tripod must incline so as to bring it within those limits, and that angle of inclination noticed, that the perpendicular height may be justly determined: that, however, never happened.

But, as the angles of elevation and depression were in general very small, I contrived to take them with a small fextant, both on account of faving time, and to avoid running unnecessary risk with the cir-

cular instrument. The method which I used was as follows.

I FIRST laid out the direction of the hypothenuse by a boning-rod placed at a distance, to be seen with the small telescope of the sextant. Another boning-rod was then placed at a convenient distance. fo that the cross vane might be brought to correfound with the cross wires of the levelling telescope, after it had been carefully adjusted to the horizontal direction by the spirit level. Then upon the same boning-rod was placed another cross vane, and the telescope elevated, or depressed, by the finger screw. until the cross wires were brought into the direction of the hypothenuse by the vane on the distant boning-In taking the angle with the sextant, I placed the axis of motion close to the Y of the levelling telescope, at the opposite end, with the finger screw: fo that the two vanes, on the distant and near boning-rods, appeared to correspond in the reslector of the fextant, and then the angle was taken.

In this manner all the smaller angles of elevation and depression were taken; and though not exactly in the way I could have wished, yet I have no doubt of their being nearly correct, perhaps as much so as

any direction can be measured.

Hence the line was determined, which passed through the axis of the levelling telescope, and was parallel to the hypothenuse. In order to place the pickets for recciving the coffers, a piece of wood was contrived for being placed upon the head of each, with a cross vane to slide up and down. Then a picket was driven, at any given distance in the allignement, and the above piece applied to its top. When the cross-piece corresponded with the mark, the picket remained in that state, and the rest of them were driven down in the same manner, and the piece applied to their respective heads; and being all adjusted by that means, their tops were consequently parallel to the line of direction.

THE

THE coffers were then put upon the pickets, and having all their bottoms of the same thickness, they therefore formed the plane in which the chain was to be extended.

When any hypothenuse was terminated, a line, with a plummet, was let fall from the arrow upon the seather edge of the chain; and the point on the ground was marked, which was defined by the point of the plummet, (for a brass register head was there unnecessary,) and the height of that extremity of the chain from the ground was carefully taken. The new hypothenuse, therefore, commenced from that same point; and the arrow at the beginning of the next chain was made to coincide with a plumbline falling to the said point. And the height also of that end of the chain, from the ground, was taken; by which means the ascent or descent of the commencement of the new hypothenuse was determined.

When the chain was extended in the coffers, it was fixed at one end to the drawing-poil, and from the other an $8\frac{1}{2}$ inch shell was suspended. The leading register-head was then brought by the singer-screw, so that some division might correspond with the arrow. Five thermometers were then put into the coffers, (one into each,) and there remained for some minutes, a cloth at the same time covering them. They were then taken out, and the mean temperature marked down. This was done to every chain, and a mean of each hypothenuse was afterwards taken, and the result served to determine the equation arising from expansion and contraction, for correcting the whole apparent length of the base.

Every thing having been prepared, the measurement commenced on the 14th October, and was completed on the 10th December: the particulars thereof will appear in the following table.

Observations for the Latitude of the Southern Extremity of the Base, and the Meridian at that Point.

For the meridian, I observed the angle which the line made with the polar star when at its greatest western elongation; and computed its azimuth, at that time, from having the latitude of the place, and the apparent polar distance given. At that season of the year a double azimuth could not be taken in the night time, and my telescope had not sufficient powers to observe the star in the day time.

Now, since the expansion of brass is different from that of steel, it follows, that when the measurement is made in a higher or lower temperature than that in which the steel and brass coincided, there will be an equation; which must be applied to the apparent measure of the chain, in order to bring it to the brass measure. I shall eall this higher or lower temperature, the temperature of measurement.

After the steel chain has been reduced to brass measure, it may be found necessary to reduce the brass standard itself, to the space it would have measured, or extended over, in a higher or lower temperature. Let that be called the standard temperature. Now upon a slight examination of these, it appears that they will resolve themselves into three cases.

Case 1st. When the standard temperature, and the temperature of measurement, are both above the temperature of coincidence.

Let the brass standard and steel chain coincide, when the thermometer is at 54°; and let a space be measured by the chain at the temperature of n degrees, so that n—54° shall express the number of degrees above the temperature of coincidence, when the measurement is made. Now, the length of the chain at 54° was precisely a given number of feet, (we will suppose 100 feet,) by the brass scale; and since ,00763 inches is the expansion of 100 feet of steel for one degree of the thermometer, it follows, that when the chain is applied at the temperature of n°, it will extend over a space on the

ground equal to $100 + \frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$ feet, if measured by the brass

scale in the temperature of 54°.

So far as to the temperature of 54° when the brass and steel coincide; that is, when 100 feet of brass coincide with 100 feet of steel at that degree of temperature. But suppose it should be thought necessary to change the standard temperature to n°, the temperature of coincidence being still at 54°: that is to say, let the space above mentioned be measured by the brass standard at the same temperature n° as when

THE observations were made on the 3d, 14th, and 21st of December, at which times the apparent azimuths of the star were 1°. 47'. 42". 1°. 47'. 40+", and 1°. 47'. 40-", leaving out the decimals of the feconds; and the mean of the angles made with the line and the star at those times, was 2°. 45′ 50′, 2°. 45′. 20″, and 2°. 45′; which, compared with the apparent azimuth, will give a mean of 57′. 40″ nearly N. Easterly, which is the angle made by the line with the meridian.

Iт

the chain was extended over that space; then, if the expansion of brass and steel had been the same, the space which measured

$$\frac{7-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$$
 feet by the brass, when the thermometer stood

at 54°, will now measure
$$100 + \frac{n-54^{\circ} \times .00763}{12}$$
 or

100 feet; by reason of the brass having increased

in 100 feet. But since 100 feet of brass expands ,01237 inches for one degree of the thermometer, the space over which the steel chain extended at no will measure by the brass standard

$$\frac{n-54^{\circ}\times,00763}{100+\frac{12}{12}}$$
 feet; and, from a parity of

reasoning, if no be not the temperature in which the space is to be measured by the brass standard, but so which is therefore the standard temperature, then the measurement reduced to that temperature will

give 100+
$$\frac{u-54^{\circ}\times,00763}{12}$$
 feet, if measured at s° of

temperature.

CASE 2. When the standard temperature, and the temperature of measurement, are both below the temperature of coincidence.

First, suppose the chain to be extended on the ground when the

thermometer is at no so that 54-no shall express the number of degrees below the temperature of coincidence; then, if that space be measured by the brass standard at 34° of temperature, it will be Ir will appear, that there is a great difference in the above observed angles of the star with the N.

Next, suppose the brass standard to be reduced to no or 54—no below the temperature of coincidence; then, had the expansion of brass and

steel been the same, the space 100——————feet would now

the brass scale, since that scale has contracted feet in 12

But 100 feet of brass will have contracted feet, and therefore the space in brass measure will be expressed by 100— $\frac{54-n^{\circ}\times 00763}{12} + \frac{54-n^{\circ}\times 0.01937}{12} = 100 + \frac{54-n^{\circ}\times 0.01237 - 54-n^{\circ}\times 0.01763}{12}$ feet, when the standard temperature is n° . But if the standard temperature be s° then the space will measure

 $\frac{\overline{54-s^{\circ}}\times,01237-\overline{54-s^{\circ}}\times,00763}{12}$ feet, when measured by the brass scale at s° of temperature.

Case 3d. Let the temperature of coincidence be between the standard temperature and the temperature of measurement.

1. Let the temperature of coincidence be 54° as before, and let the standard temperature be below 54° , so that $\overline{54-4^{\circ}}$ shall express the number of degrees below 54 for the reduction; and let n° be above 54, so that $n-54^{\circ}$ expresses the excess of the temperature of measurement above that of coincidence, and $n-s^{\circ}$ the excess of the temperature of measurement above the standard temperature. Now,

end of the base; but that arose from the unfavourable weather in the mornings, at which time the telescope

Now, by Case 1st, the space over which the chain extends on the $\frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}$ ground will be $100+\frac{12}{12}$ feet, compared with the brass scale at 54° . Had the contraction of brass been the same as that of steel, $100+\frac{n-s^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$ feet would be the measure by the brass scale at $54-s^{\circ}$ below the temperature of coincidence. But it has contracted more by $54-s^{\circ}+\frac{n-s^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$ feet in 100 feet; and consequently the space which the chain extends over at n° of temperature, will, at $n-s^{\circ}$ of temperature, measure, by the brass scale, $n-s^{\circ} \times ,00763+54-s^{\circ} \times ,01237-,00763$

2. Let the standard temperature be above 54°, and the temperature of measurement below it.

Then, by Case 2d, the space over which the châid extends, is

brass, had the expansion of steel and brass been equal. But the expansion of brass is move by s-54°+,01237-,00763 feet. And therefore, is the space over which the steel chain extended, when the tem-

perature was 54-nº below the temperature of coincidence, be mea-

sured by the brass standard, when the temperature is $s-34^{\circ}$ above that of coincidence, the value of that space, in brass measure, will be $100-(s-n^{\circ}\times,00763+s-54^{\circ}\times,0123-0076)$.

Hence, universally, if so and no denote as above, and so temperature of coincidence, and S the space on the ground over which the steel chain

telescope of the circular instrument was directed to the flag staff. It was intended to determine this angle, by having a blue light at the opposite end of the base, at the time that the star was at its greatest elongation; but, unfortunately, the weather became so unfavourable, that the star never made its appearance for upwards of a fortnight; and as I was ready to move during all that time, I therefore determined to remain no longer at that station, but wait the event of more fettled weather, which probably would happen before I had extended my operations very far, either to the castward or westward of Bangalore. I therefore prepared to take angles at the most suitable places, and proceed to lay down the positions of the principal objects within the vicinity of Bangalore.

THE latitude of the fouth end of the base was obtained some time after, by observing, at a station north of Bangalore, which, with the two extremities of the base, formed a triangle. Those observatons were made with the zenith sector on the 19th, 20th, and 21st of January, by taking the zenith dif-tance of the star Aldebaran, whose declination was corrected

chain (whose length is 100 feet at to of temperature) extends when the thermometer is at no, then the formulæ for the different cases will be

If the chain should measure 4 or any quantity (q) at the temperature e from, wear, &c. then put 100+q in place of 100 in each equation.

corrected for precession, nutation, and aberration, for those days; and, in order to correct the error of collimation of the telescope, the instrument was turned upon its vertical axis on the 21st, and the zenith distance taken on the opposite part of the arc. The latitude determined by the observation made on the 19th, was 13°.00′. 59,35″, and by that on the 20th, 13°.00′. 58,72″. N. On the 21st, when the sector was turned, the latitude was observed 13°.00′. 22,6″. which will therefore give the mean 13°.00′. 40,6″ N. From these it will appear that the error of collimation was 18,095″.

The latitude of that station being obtained, and also its distance from the south end of the base, from knowing the angle which that distance made with the meridian, the distance on the meridian, between the station, and the point where a line falling from the southern extremity would cut it at right angles, was easily had, and the difference of latitude of the station and that point was computed, by allowing 60,191 sathoms to the degree in latitude 13°. And that gave 12°. 54′. 6,6″ for the latitude of the point of intersection on the meridian of the station.

The perpendicular, falling from the south end of the base on the meridian, was then converted into minutes and seconds, by allowing 60,957 fathoms (b) for the degree on a great circle perpendicular to the meridian, and from that and the co-latitude of the point of intersection, the latitude of the southern extremity of the base was determined to be 12°.

54

⁽b) These measures have been determined by computing on the ellipsoid given by Col. Williams and Capt. Mudge, as resulting from their measurement of a degree perpendicular to the meridian in latitude 50°. 41′. N. and of a degree on the meridian in the same latitude, as obtained from the measured are between Greenwich and Paris. The ratio of the diameters of that ellipsoid is nearly as 230 to 23,155. The principles on which these computations are founded, with the most useful propositions relative to the ellipsoid, will be given hereafter, when the figure of the earth becomes the subject of investigation.

384 ON EXTENDING A GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY

54'. 6.4". In these distances, I did not compute on the chords of the arcs, because the instrument I had in use was not sufficient for that purpose.

Experiments for determining the Expansion of the Chain.

In making allowance for the expansion of the chain, in the annexed table, it will appear that I have differed both from General Roy and Colonel Williams. It may therefore be necessary to give the following account of the experiments which were made for ascertaining that allowance, which experiments were made by the chain itself, observing its length at sun-rise, and at one o'clock, between which

hours the base was generally measured.

AFTER the chain was extended in the coffers, in the manner formerly mentioned, it was carefully adjusted, at each end, to some particular marks on the register-heads, about the hours of sun-rise. finger-screw of one of these brass sliders had been previously graduated into eight equal parts, on its circumference, which were counted, on its being turned, by another mark on the end of the slider, touching that part, of the circumference. finger-screw was observed to make 26 revolutions in one inch, so that one of the divisions, on the circumference, was equal zor part of an inch. Things being thus adjusted, the experiments were made in the following order, and the mean temperature taken from three of the best thermometers I had, which remained the whole time in the coffers with the chain; and these coffers were covered in the same manner as they had been during the operations of the measurement.

DECEMBER 11th, at one P. M. the temperature

W28 95°.

DECEMBER 12th, at seven A. M. the mean temperature was 58°; therefore 37° is the difference, or fall

of the thermometer, fince the preceding day.

The chain had contracted 58 divisions on the micrometer screw, each of which being equal ter inches, therefore the whole expansion of the chain was the expansion of the chain was to expansion of the chain due to one degree of the thermometer.

DECEMBER 13th, at half past six A. M. the mean of three thermometers was 56°, which was 39° decrease of temperature since the preceding day at one o'clock P. M. The chain had contracted 60 divisions; therefore to divided by 39° = ,007396 inches.

At one P. M. the same day, the temperature was 97°, and consequently the increase since morning was 41°. The chain had expanded 63 divisions, hence to divided by 41°, gives ,0073853 inches.

DECEMBER 15th. At seven A. M. the temperature was 62°, and at one P. M. 93°, and therefore the increase since morning was 31°. The chain had expanded 46 divisions, therefore \$2.5 divided by 31° == .00713 inches.

DECEMBER 16th, at half past six A. M. the temperature was 51°,2, which was 41°,8 below the preceding day at one o'clock P. M. The chain had contracted 59 divisions, which proceeding as before, gives ,006786 inches.

DECEMBER 17th, at half past six A. M. the temperature was 56°, and at one P. M. it was 92°, whose difference is 36°. The chain had 58 divisions, which

will give ,00761 inches.

The mean of all these being ,007253 inches, I have therefore made the expansion of the chain due to 1° of temperature above 62° to be ,0073 inches.

XI.

On the Origin and Peculiar Tenets of Certain Muhammedan Sects.

By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

Indian Peninsula, but found also in most of the great cities of Hindustán, are conspicuous by their peculiar customs; such, for example, as that of wearing at their orisons an appropriate dress, which they daily wash with their own hands. Their disposition for trade, to the exclusion of every other mode of livelihood, and the government of their tribe by a hierarchy, are further peculiarities, which have rendered them an object of inquiry as a singular sect.

RESEARCHES made by myself, among others, were long unsuccessful. My informers confounded this tribe with the Ismáiliyahs, with the Altilahiyahs, and even with the unchaste sect of Cherágh-cush. Concerning their origin, the information received was equally erroneous with that regarding their tenets. But at length a learned Sayyad referred me to the Mejálisu'lmúminin composed by Nurullah of Shúster, a zealous Shiáh, who suffered for his religious opinions in the reign of Jeha'ngír. In the passage, which will be forthwith cited from that work, the Bóhrahs are described by the author, as natives of Gujrát, converted to the Muhammedan religion about three hundred years before his time, or five centuries ago.

To that passage I shall subjoin extracts from the same work, containing an account of similar tribes, with some of which the Bohrahs may, perhaps, have been sometimes consounded. Concerning the Ismáliyahs, for whom they have been actually mistaken, it must be remembered, that these form a sect of Shiahs, who take their diffinitive appellation

from

ISMA'I'L, eldest son, and nominated successor, of Imám JA'FER, surnamed Sádik. They consider ISMA'I'L as the true heir of the Imámet, and do not acknowledge the legal succession of his brother Mu'sa', and of the five last Imáms. This sect slourished under the Egyptian dynasty of Khalifs founded by Muhammed Mahadi', who claimed descent from the Imám ISMA'I'L himself. It was also conspicuous under a dynasty of princes of this sect, the first of whom, Hasan Sabah, sounded a principality in Irák.* The sect may still exist in Syria, but it does not seem to be at present known in the Indian portion of Asia.

THE Aliilahiyahs, on the conteary, are become numerous in India. This feet is mentioned by the author of the Dabistán, as prevalent in his time, only at Uzbil, or Azbál, in the mountainous tract near Khatá. It now prevails, according to information which I have received, in a part of the dominions of Nawa's Niza'mu'l Mulc. The fingular tenets of this heretical sect are thus stated by Mon-SEN FA'NI'. "The Aliilahiyahs hold, that celestial spirits, which cannot otherwise be known to mankind, have frequently appeared in palpable shapes. GOD himself has been manifested in the human form, but especially in the person of ALI MURTEZA', whose image, being that of Ali' Ullah, or All' GOD, these sectaries deem it lawful to worship. They believe in the metempsychosis; and, like others who maintain that doctrine, abstain from flesh-meat. They imagine that Ali' Multeza', when he quitted this earth, returned to the sun, which Vol. VII.

^{*} See the Dabistán of Mulla Monsen Fa'ni'; and D'Herre-Lor's Bibliotheque Orientale. If the industrious Bóhrahs, and the remorseless "assassins," had really arisen out of the same sect, it would be a new fact in the history of the human mind.

which is the same with himself; and hence they call the fun Ali' Ullah. This fect does not admit the authenticity of the Korán, as it is now extant; some pretending, that it is a forgery of ABUBECR's, OMAR's, and OTHMA'N's; others condemning it, fimply because it was edited by the last mentioned Khalif. The members of this feet appear to vary in regard to some points of doctrine: but the leading and universal tenet of this sect is, that, in every age of the world, GOD is manifested in the persons of prophets, and of saints: for instance, he was Adam, and afterwards Ahmed, and Ali': and in like manner these sectaries believe in the transmigration of GOD into the persons of the Imáms. Some of them affirm, that the manifestation of the Divite Being, in this age of the world, was Ali' ULLAH; and, after him, his glorious posterity: and they confider MUHAMMED as a prophet fent by Ali' Ullah. When GOD, say they, perceived MUHAMMED's infusficiency, he himself assumed the human form for the purpose of affisting the prophet."*

It does not appear, from any fatisfactory information, that the Bohrahs agree with either of these fects in deifying Ali', or in contesting the legal succession of the fix last Imams. On the contrary, the tribe is acknowledged to confift of orthodox Sunnis, and of true Shiahs; but mostly of the last mentioned sect. These, and other known circumstances, corroborate the following account of that tribe, as given by Nu'RULLAH of Shufter, in the work before mentioned.

"THE Bohrahs are a tribe of the faithful, which is settled chiefly at Ahmedabad and its environs. Their falvation in the bosom of religion took place

[•] See the Dubistan, from which this account is abstracted.

about three hundred years ago, at the call of a virtuous and learned man, whose name was Mullah

Ací, and whose tomb is still seen at the city of Cam-

báyat.

66 The conversion of this people was thus conducted by him: As the inhabitants of Gujrát were Pagans, and were guided by an aged priest, a recreant, in whom they had a great confidence, and whose disciples they were, the missionary judged it expedient, first to offer himself as a pupil to the priest; and, after convincing him by irrefragable proofs, and making him participate in the declaration of faith, then to undertake the conversion of others. He accordingly passed some years in attendance on that priest, learnt his language, studied his sciences, and became conversant with his books. By degrees he opened the articles of the faith to the enlightened priest, and persuaded him to become Muslemán. Some of his people-changed their religion in concert with their old instructor. The circumstance of the priest's conversion being made known to the principal minister of the king of that country, he visited the priest, adopted habits of obedience towards him, and became a Muslem. But for a long time, the minister, the priest, and the rest of the converts, disfembled their faith, and fought to keep it concealed, through dread of the king.

45 Ar length the intelligence of the minister's conversions reached the monarch. One day he repaired to his house, and finding him in the humble posture of prayer, was incenfed against him. The minister knew the motive of the king's visit, and perceived that his anger arose from the suspicion that he was reciting prayers, and performing adoration. presence of mind, inspired by Divine Providence, he immediately pretended that his prostrations were occasioned by the sight of a serpent, which appeared in a corner of the room, and against which he was employing

 \mathbf{Z}_{2}

employing incaptations. The king cast his eyes towards the corner of the apartment, and it so happened that there he saw a serpent: the minister's excuse appeared credible, and the king's suspicions were lulled.

AFTER a time, the king himself secretly became a convert to the Musleman saith; but dissembled the state of his mind, for reasons of state. Yet; at the point of death, he ordered, by his will, than is corpse should not be burnt, according to the customs

of the Pagans.

Subsequently to his decease, when Sulta'n Zefer, one of the trusty nobles of Sultan Fi'ru'z Shah, sovereign of Déhli, conquered the province of Gujrât, some learned men, who accompanied him, used arguments to make the people embrace the faith, according to the doctrines of such as-revere the traditions.* Hence it happened, that some of the tribe of Bóhrahs became members of the sect of the Sunnet.

"THE party which retains the Imamiyeh tenets, comprehends nearly two thousand families. always have a pious learned man amongst them, who expounds cases of law according to the doctrines of the Imamiyehs. Most of them subsist by commerce and methanical trades; as is indicated by the name of Bohrah, which fignifies merchant in the dialect of Gujrát. They transmit the fifth part of their gains to the Sayyads of Medineh; and pay their regular eleemofynary contributions to the chief of their learned, who distributes the alms among the poor of the sect. These people, great and small, are honest, pious, and temperate. They always suffer much persecution (for the crime of bearing affection towards the holy family) from the wicked murderers, T who are invelted with public authority; and they are ever involved in the difficulties of concealment.

"THE

^{*} The Sunnis, or orthodox sect.

^{*} The orthodox.

"The S'adikiyaks are a tribe of the faithful in Hindustan; pious men, and disciples of SAYYAD CABIRU'DDI'N, who derived his descent from ISMAIL, fon of IMA'M JAFER. This tribe is denominated S'adikiyahs, by reason of the sincere [sadik] call of that Sayyad. Although that appellation have, according to received notions, a seeming relation to ABU'BECR, whose partisans give him this title, yet it is probable that the sect assumed that appellation for the fake of concealment. However, no advantage ever accrues to them from it. On the contrary, the arrogant inhabitants of Hind, who are Hinduis, being retainers of the fon of the impious HIND, have discovered their attachment to the sect of Shiahs, and have revived against them the calumnies which five hundred years before they broached against the Ismāiliyahs. They maliciously charge them with impiety: such, indeed, is their ancient practice. They violate justice, and labour to extirpate this harmless tribe. In short, they cast the ftone of calumny on the roof of the name and reputation of this wretched people, and have no fear of GOD, nor awe of his Prophet. +

"In short, nearly thirty thousand persons of this sect are settled in provinces of Hindustán, such as Multán, Láhár, Déhlí, and Gujrát. Most of them subsist by commerce. They pay the fifth part of their gains to the descendants of Sayyan Cabia, who are their priests: and both preceptor and pupil, priests and laymen, all are zealous Shíāhs. GOD avert evil from them, and make the wiles of their

foes recoil!

"THE Házárehs of Cábul are an innumerable tribe, who reside in Cábul, Ghaznin, and Kandhar, Z 3 Many

* Meaning HINDA', the mother of MAVIYER.

[†] The author proceeds in a strain of invective against the Sunnis; especially against Mulla AnnuLAR of Liker, who bere the title of the Makupu'su'lmulc. This, being superfluous, to here omitted.

342 ON THE ORIGIN AND PECULIAR TENETS, &c.

Many of them are Shiahs, and adherents of the holy family. At present, among the chiefs of the Shiahs, is Mirza Sha'dma'n, with whom the faithful are well pleased, and of whose incursions the * Kharejis of Cabul and Ghaznin bitterly complain.

"The Baloch of Sind; many of these are devoted Shiahs. They call themselves, and are called by all the faithful, Ali's friends. Sayyad Ra'ju', of Bokhará, exerted himself in the guidance of this tribe; his descendants remain among them, and are occupied with the concerns of the sect."

^{*} The word is here used as a term of reproach: for its origin; as the appellation of a sect, see D'HERBELOT'S Bibliotheque Orien-

XII.

A fummary Account of the Life and Writings of AVYAR,

A TAMUL FEMALE PHILOSOPHER.

By the Reverend Dr. John.

THE Malabars, or more properly the Tamuls, boalt of having produced the celebrated AVYAR, one of their ancient moral philosophers.

This Lady's writings contain good general ideas,

grounded in the science of morality.

SHE was a Polytheist, and invokes the god Sur-PIRAMANIEN, OF PULLEYAR, the Son of Siven,* who is held by the Hindoos to be the protector of learning and science, as Mercury was amongst the Greeks.

HER origin, and birth, as well as the æra in which

she flourished, are lost in fable:

Some pretend she was a goddess, one of BRIMHA's wives, and stad been guilty of a trespass, for which she had been driven from heaven to earth, where she was condemned to remain till she had performed sufficient atonement for her sin, by severe and long repentance. On earth she composed her moral writings, for the benefit of mankind, and particularly for youth. On account of her divine origin, she is therefore highly respected.

Z 4 OTHERS

This appears to be an oversight of the learned author. Soo-PRAMANIEN is the Hindoo God of war, called also Ca'rtice'ya, (Kar-Tekeya and Scanda, (compare As. Researches, Vol. I. p. 252, with Sonnerat's Voyage, Vol. I. p. 325, Octavo edition.) And Polle'ar, or Ganesa, who is generally invoked at the commencement of every undertaking, is compared by Sir William Jones to the Romau Janus. He is said to be the eldest, and the former the second, son of Seeva. The Kundapranam, quoted below, is probably the Scanda-purana, as the name is written by Capt. Wilford. (As. Res. Vol. IV. p. 363.) Compare As. Res. Vol. I. p. 227, with Sonnerat's Travels, Vol. I. p. 323.

O HERS take her to be one of the seven wise or moral philosophers, in whom the *Tamuls* glory as well as the ancient Greeks, and with more reason, as they have four ladies in the number, and only three men. Their wonderful birth is related in the *Kandapranam*, of which I will give only a short extract.

THE female philosophers are AVYAR, UPPAY, VAL-LIE, and URUVAY; and the male, the famous TIRU-VALLUWER, (whose writings contain good and elegant

moral verses,) Adigamam, and Kavviler.

All these seven wise persons belonged to the same family, were of the same parents, but were educated by different charitable guardians. One in the royal palace by a king; the other in the hut of a basket-maker; another by a Bramin; another even by an outcast; and so forth; but at last they all turned out Sages. Their birth was not less wonderful. Their fa-

ther was Perali, and their grandfather Vedamoli, both great faints and philosophers. The latter saw, once in the night, a bright star falling down, in a village inhabited by outcasts, upon a house wherein a girl was just born. By his prophetic power he discovered that this girl would be one day married to his son Perali, who was then a boy of twelve years of age, which made him very uneasy.

HE communicated his forrow to his fellow Bramins, but in general terms only: he told them, that the girl born last night in the village of outcasts, under such wonderful circumstances, would entail numberless missortunes on the Bramin cast in general; but he carefully concealed whatever had relation to his own son, since its disclosure would have

excluded him from the cast.

They were all struck with terror at this sad prophecy, and they deliberated as to the disposal of the infant. The sather was called, and informed of the unlucky destiny interwoven with his child, and he was asked which ought to suffer; his child, or the revered

revered cast of Bramins? The poor man answered very submissively, 'I deliver up my child entirely to you; do with her what you think proper.' The child was brought, and her death was unanimously agreed

upon. Vedamoli alone withheld his confent from this barbarous decree; and, instead of the death of the child, proposed its removal to a distant place

where it might be left to its fate.

They listened to this advice, made a box, laid the child in, and put it in the holy river $K\bar{a}v\bar{e}ri$, leaving it to the destiny of the Deity. During this transaction, the old prophet ordered his son to go and look at the child before it was committed to the water, and see if he could discover any distinguishing mark on her body. This he did, and returned with the answer, that the child had a very distinct black mark on her thigh. The matter was now dropt, and the old man died soon after, without surther explanation on the subject.

When the poor little Nyad was thus floating to a remote country, a Brahmin was on a morning at the river, washing, and performing his usual devotions and ceremonies. He saw the box coming on, and, instead of finding a treasure, which he expected, discovered in it a new-born smiling girl. Having no children, though he had often prayed to obtain that blessing, he imagined his Deity had heard his prayers, and savoured him with this child. He put her to nurse, and provided for her education as his own daughter. Meanwhile young Perali, having been well instructed in philosophy, began, after the example of his late father, to travel as a Njani to visit holy places, and to converse with saints and philosophers for his improvement.

On these travels he came accidentally to the house of that Bramin who had adopted the girl. The Bramin, finding him to be a fine well-informed youth, grew sond of his character and zeal in learning, kept him several years in his house, and at last married him to the girl, who generally was supposed to be his own daughter. After they had lived happy together for a while, she once returned from her oblations, and, on her changing her clothes, he was thunderstruck, as it were, at observing the mark on her thigh, and which discovered her low birth, of which she herself was ignorant. He hid from her his anxiety, but made inquiries of other Bramins, how his father-in-law had got this supposed daughter, and the whole secret was now disclosed to him.

Nor choosing to quarrel with his father-in-law, or to appear ungrateful for the kindness and benefits which had been conferred, he was filent; but in a flate of much distraction, he went away, without taking leave, or faying any thing either to his fatherin-law, or to his wife. Both were much alarmed; and the father-in-law thinking his daughter had offended her husband, or was in some way the cause of his displeasure, ordered her to go after him, and either to reconcile and bring him back, or to follow him every where, and stay with him. She obeyed, went after him, and used every possible means to persuade him to forgive her if she had offended him, and to be cheerful, and return to his father's house. was immoveable, answered not a fingle word, looked much confused, went on hastily, and endeavoured to escape from her fight. However, she followed him wherever he went, and stayed at every Choultry and Shettrum where he passed the night, hoping that he at last would be prevailed upon to return with her. This continued for five days; and he, tired of her entreaties, in the night, watched when she fell asseep, and then he arose, left her, and went away. When she awoke, she looked about, and observed with the greatest concern he was gone, and she herself quite deserted. She did not know what to do. or whither to go; nor did she venture to return to her her father, where order she wished strictly to obey. and who might, perhaps, think she had killed her husband when she came back without him. In this deplorable fituation, she wandered about in a neighbouring village, fighing and weeping. This was obferved by a Bramin, who asked her the cause of her tears. She informed him of her sad misfortunes. and all the circumstances of her former life, so far as she herself knew them. At this he was greatly affected, bid her come to his house, and promised to take care of her as one of his own daughters. came, and behaved in such a manner, that she endeared herself to him, and to all his other daughters, who treated her as a fifter. When this good man died, he divided his great estate in equal portions: and she got so much, that she built a Shettrum. wherein the passed her days religiously, and charitably treated the pilgrims and religious travellers who came to lodge there by night, with milk, rice, fruits. and all the victuals she could afford. At the same time she endeavoured to improve by them in knowledge and virtue, asked their advice, requested them to relate to her the circumstances of their lives, and did the same respecting her own life and adventures; her object in this being to pass the time in a mutually agreeable and useful manner. When she had continued fo for feveral years, it happened that her husband came as a pilgrim to the same Shettrum. and was entertained by her in the same kind manner with which she received and entertained the other travellers. Neither knew the other. When the related also to him her adventures, he was surprised to find his wife in this virtuous person, and that he himself had so great a share in what she related. He admired her virtue and faithfulnefs, but was greatly. confused in his mind, seigning to fall asseep during her discourse, but passed the night in the utmost anxiety. Before sun rise he arose, took his stick and little bundle, and went off without faying a word.

At this she was highly surprised and affected, thinking she might have perhaps offended him, or not attended him well enough, and went therefore after him. asking, "Why do you go away so silent and troubled in mind? Have you taken perhaps any offence at me, or do you suspect my virtue? Tell and forgive, if I have done any thing amiss unknowingly. You go away just in the same manner as my husband when he left me. At this he could no longer refrain himfelf, he threw down his earthen veffels and bundle, and exclaimed, "Yes, I am thy husband! and thou art my wife. I have not left thee for any fault on thy fide, but only for religious purposes. As thou hast remained so religious and faithful, I receive thee again, if thou wilt strictly do all that I shall order thee." Surprised and rejoiced at this happy discovery, she promised him solemnly to pay him the strictest obedience. From this time he carried her with him on all his travels, and had feven children by her, who became the above-mentioned philosophers. This was, indeed, no great wonder, as they were born with the gifts of speech and of wisdom. She, was ordered by her husband to expose the children in the woods in the open air, leaving them to Providence, without nurling, or taking any farther care of the new-born infants. This she obeyed implicitly, according to her solemn engagement, which she kept facredly, though with inward reluctance, and the tender feelings of a mother. When she kissed and took leave of them, each began to speak, and to comfort her. One faid to her, The Deity has formed me in thy womb, nourished me, and let me grow in it wonderfully till my birth: dost thou now doubt that he will not provide for me further? Go, put thy trust in him, and follow his ways. The second child said at her departure, God provides even for the frog in a stone, shall he do less for me? Why art thou anxious for me? Be comforted, and go. The third replied to her, God

God has brought me into the world; and determined my fate: is he perhaps dead? He furely will not let me starve. Go, dear mother, and fear nothing for my sake. The fourth said, Is not the egg furrounded with a hard shell? and God notwithstanding vivisies the little brood in it: will not he feed it after it has broken through the shell? Thus he will also feed me: do not be troubled, but cheerful, and be confident in his Providence. fifth faid to her, He who has made the finest veins and channels within the plants, in which the nourishing particles of the earth rife and cause their growth, and who has formed the smallest insects so wonderfully in their parts, and gives them food, will not be do the same for me? Be not, therefore, cast down, but be in good spirits, and hope in him. The fixth said, Manifold and trifling are the occupations of men, but the great work of the Almighty is to create and to preserve; believe this, and comfort thyself. seventh addressed her thus: God creates such different qualities in the trees and plants, that they produce sour, sweet, bitter, and various delicious fruits. He who is powerful to do this, will also provide for me: why dost thou weep, my dear mother? Be cheerful, and hope in him. Each of these children was foon after found, taken up, nurfed, and provided for, by people of the highest, middle, and lowest ranks. One by a king, another by a washerman, another by a poet and philosopher, another by a toddyman, another by a balket-maker, another by a Bramin, and another by an outcast. AVYAR, of whose writings I shall give some account, had the fate to be educated by the poet. The time in which she lived, is placed in the age when the three famous kings, SHOLEN, SHERON, and PANDIEN, lived, which falls about the 9th century of the Christian æra.

Amongst other sciences, she was well acquainted with chemistry, and became and adept, possessing the power of making gold, the best medicine, and

the famous calpam, which preserves life to a great age, and by the virtue of which she lived 240 years. From this fabulous narration, which is differently represented in several Tamul antient writings, I will proceed to her performances, which are the little moral Treatises Atisudi, Konnewenden, Mudurci, Nadwäli, and Kalvi-oluckam. These are introduced in the Tanul Schools, and read by the children amongst the first books which they learn to read. But neither the children understand it, nor can hardly any mafter comprehend each of the fentences they contain, as some are composed of such high and abtruse words, which admit more than one sense; and some say that each sentence could be interpreted in five different ways. Some appear to me clear enough, and admitting only one interpretation; but fome are fo dark, and those with whom I have confulted, vary so much amongst themselves, that I sound it difficult to decide between their interpretations; and I choose, therefore, that which gave the best fenfe, and according to that manuscript which I posses, for there are also different manuscripts.

THE fentences are placed according to the order of the *Tamul* Alphabet; each accordingly begins with a letter; therefore we may call it, The Golden

Alphabet of the Tamuls.

I SHALL now give first a translation of the Atisūdi, and shall continue to translate the rest, if this meets with a favourable acceptance from the friends of antient Indian Learning.

TRANSLATION OF THE ATISUDI, BY AVYAR.

GLORY and Honour be to the divine fon of him who is crowned with the flowers* of the Ati, (Bau-hinia tomentofa.)

Charity be thy pleasure.

Be not passionate.

Be

^{*} Shiven is represented with this flower round his head; and Polley 16, or Vickintschan, is his first Son, who is here implored.

Be not a miser in giving.

Hinder none in charity.

Do not manifest thy secrets.

Lose not thy courage.

Exercise thyself in cyphering and writing.

To live on alms is shameful.

Give, and then eat.

Converse only with the peaceful.

Never cease to improve in learning.

Do not speak what is dishonest.

Do not raise the price of victuals.

Do not say more than thou hast seen.

Take care of what is most dear.

Bathe on each Saturday.

Speak what is agreeable.

Build not too large a house.

Know first one's character before thou art consident.

Honour thy father and mother.

Do not forget benefits received.

Sow in due time.

Tillage gives the best livelihood.

Do not walk about melancholy.

Do not play with inakes.

Bed thyfelf on cotton, (foft.)

Do not speak crastily.

Do not flatter.

Learn whilst thou art young.

Do not forget what is best for thy body

Avoid affectation.

Forget offence.

To protect is noble.

Seek a constant happines.

Avoid what is low.

Keep strongly what is good.

Do not part with thy friend.

Do not hurt any body.

Hear and improve.

Do not use thy hands to do mischief.

Do not defire stolen goods. Be not flothful in thy actions. Keep strictly to the laws of the country. Keep company with the virtuous. Be not a scoffer. Do not act against the custom of the country. Make not others blush by thy speaking. Do not love gaming. What thou doft, do with propriety. Consider the place where thou goest. Do not walk about as a spy. Do not speak too much. Do not walk about like a dreamer. Converse with those who are polite. Endeavour to be settled at a fixed place. Dedicate thyself to TIRUMAL, VISHTNOO. Abhor what is bad. Indulge not thy distress. Save rather than destroy. Speak not difrespectfully of the Deity. Be on good terms with thy fellow citizens. Do not mind what women fay. Do not despise thy ancestors. Do not pursue a conquered enemy. Be constant in virtue. Have a regard for country people. Remain in the station. Do not play in water. Do not occupy thyself with trifles. Keep the divine laws. Cultivate what gives the best fruit. Remain constantly in what is just. Do thy business without a murmur. Do not speak ill of any body. Do not make thyself sick. Mock not those who have any bodily defect Go not where a fnake may lie.

Do not speak of others faults.

Keep far from infection. Endeavour to get a good name. Seek thy livelihood by tilling the ground. Endeavour to get the protection of the great. Avoid being fimple. Converse not with the wicked. Be prudent in applying thy money. Come not near to thine adversary. Choose what is the best. Do not come near one who is in a passion. Avoid the company of choleric men. Converse with those who are meek. Follow the advices of wise men. Go not into the house of the dancing girls. Speak distinctly to be well understood. Abhor bad lusts. Do not speak falsely. Do not like dispute. Love Learning. Endeavour to get a house of your own. Be an honest man. Live peaceful with thy fellow citizens. Do not speak frightfully. Do not evil purposely. Be clean in thy clothes. Go only where there is peace. Love religious meditation.

End of the Moral Sentences given by AVYAR.

TRANSLATION of the KALWIOLUCKAM, or Rules of Learning, by Avyar.

The zealous study of sciences brings increasing happiness and honour.

From the fifth year of age, learning must begin.

The more we learn, the more understanding we get.

Spare no expence to learn reading and writing.

Of all treasures, reading and writing are the most valuable.

Learning is really the most durable treasure.

An ignorant man ought to remain dumb.

He who is ignorant of reading and writing, is indeed very poor.

Though thou should'st be very poor, learn at least

fomething.

Of each matter endeavour to get a clear knowledge. The true end of knowledge is to distinguish good and bad.

He who has learned nothing, is a confused prattler. The five syllables, Na ma si va yāh, contain a great mystery.

He who is without knowledge, is like a blind man.

Cyphering must be learned in youth.

Be not the cause of shame to thy relations.

Fly from all that is low.

One accomplished philosopher is hardly to met with among thousands.

A wise man will never cease to learn.

If all should be lost, what we have learned will never be lost.

He who loves instruction, will never perish.

A wife man is like a supporting hand.

He who has attained learning by free felf application, excels other philosophers.

Continue always in learning, though thou should st do it at a great expence.

Enjoy

Enjoy always the company of wise men.

He who has learned most, is most worthy of honour.

What we have learned in youth, is like a writing cut in stone.

Speak the Tamul language not only elegantly, but also distinctly.

False speaking causes infinite quarrels.

He who studies sophistry and deceit, turns out a wicked man.

Science is an ornament wherever we come.

He who converses with the wicked, perishes with them.

Honour a moral master, (tutor.)

Speak flowly when thou conversest or teachest.

He who knoweth himself, is the wisest.

What thou hast learned, teach also to others.

Learn in a proper manner, then thou wilt succeed in being wife.

He who will be a tutor, must first have a well grounded knowledge.

If one knows what fin is, he becomes wife.

The wicked will not accept of instruction.

Do not fix thy attention on vain women.

Well principled wife men approach the perfection of the Divinity.

Begin thy learning in the name of the Divine Son, (Pulleyar.)

Endeavour to be respected amongst men by learning.

Let thy learning be thy best friend.

Use the strongest intreaties where thou canst learn something, then wilt thou become a great man in the world.

All perishes except learning.

Though one is of a low birth, learning will make him respected.

Religious wise men enjoy great happiness.

Though thou you should'st be one hundred years old, endeavour still to increase in knowledge.

Aae

Wildom

Wisdom is firm grounded even on the great ocean. Without wisdom, no where is there ground to stand

upon.

Learning also suits old age.

Wise men will never offend any by speaking.

Accept instructions even from men of a low birth.

Do not behave impolitely to men of learning.

Poets require a great deal of learning.

The unwife only flatter others.

Seek honor, and thou shalt get it.

The virtuous are also tutors.

Wisdom is the greatest treasure on earth.

The wifer, the more respected.

Learning gives great fame.

Learn one thing after the other, but not hastily.

A science in which we take no pleasure, is like a bitter medicine.

Speak so that town and country people may understand thee.

Wife men are as good as kings.

Do not deceive even thine own enemy.

Hast thou learned much, communicate it also in an agreeable manner.

In whom is much science, in him is great value.

The present Tamul language does not equal the

He that knows the sciences of the ancients, is the greatest philosopher.

Truth is in learning the best.

Wise men are exalted above all other men.

True philosophy does not suffer a man to be put in confusion.

In proportion as one increases in learning, he ought also to increase in virtue.

The most prosperous good is the increase in learning.

He

^{*}This seems to indicate that Avyan's writings are not of great antiquity.

He who has no knowledge, knows not also the truth. Wisdom is a treasure valued every where.

A good tutor is beloved over the whole world.

What we gain by science is the best estate, (inheritance.)

Adore the Goddess SARASBADI.

The Vedam (facred writings) teaches wisdom.

Speak and write for the benefit of the public.

He who fpeaks well and connectedly, is best understood by all.

If knowledge has a proper influence on the mind, it makes us virtuous.

End of the Moral Book KALWIOLUCKAM, composed by AVYAR.

TRANSLATION of the SMALL TAMUL BOOK KONNEIVENDEN, written by the FEMALE PHILOSOPHER AVYAR.

Continual praise be to the son of him who is crowned with the slower of Konnie, (Poinciana pulcherrima.)

Mother and Father are the f st known Deity.

A good man attendeth religious firvice.

Without one's own house there is no where a good lodging.

The estate of the ricked will be robbed by the wicked.

Modesty is the best ornament in the fair sex.

If one maketh himself hateful to his sellow-creatures, he must entirely perish.

Exercise in writing and cyphering is most useful.

Obstinate children are like a poisonous draught.

Though thou art very poor, do what is honest.

Adhere chiefly to the only one constantly.

The virtuous will always improve in wisdom and knowledge.

A wicked mouth destroys all wealth.

Seek wealth and money, but without quarrel.

Give in writing what shall stand fast.

A woman must attend herself best.

Even with thy nearest friends speak not impolitely.

Speak friendly even to the poor.

If one will criticise, he will find some fault every where.

Speak not haughtily, though thou art a great man.

To pardon is better than to revenge.

What shall stand firm must have witnesses.

Wisdom

Wisdom is of greater value than ready money.

To be on good terms with the king is useful in due time.

A calumnious mouth is a fire in the wood.

Good advisers are hated by the world.

The best ornament of a family is unanimity.

What a senior says, must a junior not despise.

If thou cherishest passion, all thy merit is lost.

Get first the plough, and then look out for the oxen.

A moral life has a happy influence on the public.
Gaming and quarrelling bring mifery.
Without practical virtue there is no merit.
Keep a proper time even for thy bed.
Be peaceful, give and be happy.
A merchant must be careful with money.
Laziness brings great distress.
To obey the father is better than prayer.
To honour the mother is better than divine service.

Scek thy convenient livelihood, shouldst thou even do it upon the sea.

Irreconcileableness ends in quarrel. A bad wise is like a fire in the lap. A slandering wife is like a devil.

Without the mercy of the Deity nothing will profper.

He who fquanders away even what he has not gained justly, must perish at last.

In January and February sleep under a good roof. Better eat by hard labour than by humble begging. Speak not what is low even to thy friend. Without a clean conscience there is no good sleep. If the public is happy, all are safe. Improvement in wisdom improves our veracity. Seek a house where good water is at hand. Deliberate first well what thou art going to begin. The reading of good books will improve welfare.

Who

Who fpeaks as he thinks, is an upright man.

What we propose we must pursue with zeal.

We must not speak dishonestly even to a poor man.

Dishonesty will end in infamy.

Laziness brings lamentations.

The fruit will be equal to the feed.

We cannot always drink milk, but must submit to the time.

An honest man does not touch another's property.

The name of a true great man will ever remain in esteem.

Lies are as much as murder and robbery.

What honesty can be expected from low fellows?

Amongst relations civility is often neglected.

A mild temper is a beauty in women.

The meek are the happiest.

Keep thyself from all that is bad.

Wisdom is the direct way to Heaven.

Let thy fellow-creatures partake in thy enjoy-

Where there is no rain, there is no crop.

After lightning follows rain.

Without a good steerer a ship cannot sail.

Who fows in time will have a good crop.

The precepts of the old ought to be cheerfully observed.

Who keeps the proper time to sleep, will sleep well.

The plough never will let one fuffer want.

Live in matrimony, and be moderate.

Who breaks his word, loses his interest.

Abhor and fly from lasciviousness.

Gain by deceit will at last be lost.

If Heaven is not favourable, nothing will prosper.

From impolite people honesty can't be expected.

The words of the haughty are like arrows.

A family ought to support their poor.

A great man must also have a great mind.

A good man will never deceive.

If the Lord is angry, no man can save.

All the world shall praise God.

Sleep on a safe place.

Without religion is no virtue.

End of the Moral Sentences called Konneivenden, written by Avyar.

XIII.

ACCOUNT of the St. Thome' Christians on the Coast of Malabar.

By F. WREDE', Esq.

A LTHOUGH the unexpected discovery of Christians on the Malabar Coast, was a matter of the greatest surprise and satisfaction to the first Portuguese adventurers, who were equally enthusiastic to extend their military glory and conquests, as to propagate their religion among the insidels in the remotest quarters of the world, yet their exultation was temporary; for when, upon nearer investigation, they found that these Christians sollowed the doctrine of Nestorius, and acknowledged. instead of the Pope, the Patriarch of that sect, residing in Syria, for their ecclesiastical supreme chief, they appeared in their eyes worse than insidels.

Their number must have been very considerable in the beginning of the 16th century, when the Portuguese became first acquainted with them, since they possessed about one hundred and ten churches, in the countries now subject to the Travancore and Cochin Rajas: and at this present time, after the manifold persecutions, oppressions, and successive revolutions, that have almost depopulated the whole coast, they are computed to amount to no less than

They are indiscriminately called St. Thomé Christians, Neslorians, Syrians, and sometimes the Malabar Christians of the Mountains, by the Portuguese writers of that time, and by the subsequent missionaries from Rome. The most common name given to them by the Hindoos of the country, is that of Nazaranee Mapila; and more frequently Surians, or Suriance Mapila.

THE

THE Portuguese were fond of bestowing upon them the name of St. Thomé Christians; though this appellation does not appear to have been, or now to be, very common amongst themselves. It originates, probably, from the chief who fettled the first colony of Syrians on the coast, and who was, according to their tradition, their first bishop and founder of their religion in these countries, and whose name was MAR THOME'. This is corroborated by the curious circumstance of their giving the name of MAR THOME' to every ecclefialtical chief or bishop of theirs, although his real name be Joseph or ABRA-HAM; not, improbably, in compliment to their first bishop and founder, for whom they have still a religious veneration. His arrival and fettlement on the coast, may, perhaps, on a future period, be ascertained. with hiftorical accuracy, to have taken place during the violent perfection of the feet of Nestorius. under Theodosius the Second, or some time after.

Bur the bigoted Portuguese inissionaries hold of this name to renew the flory of the arrival and martyrdom of St. Thomas the Apostle in India, who they pretended had converted a great number of idolaters on the coast of Malabar, and afterwards on the other fide of India, as far as Malliapoor, now St. Thomé, where he fuffered martyrdom: and as vestiges of Christianity were at the same period difcovered in China, they made the same Apostle preach the Gospel in that remote region; and some carried the absurdity so far, as to make him pass, some way or other, over to the Brasils.* The Malabar Christians, they fay, had a long time continued without ecclefiastical chiefs, or communication with the rest of the Christian world, till they found means to procure bishops from Moful, in Syria, who unfortunately

^{*} Vide Historia Ecclesiæ Malab. eam Diamperitano Synodo, page 345.

nately had been abettors of Nestorius, and that, through their means, this abominable herefy had been introduced amongst the Christians of Malabar.
Though this story is supported by no historical proof whatsoever, and evidently fabricated by some bigoted Roman Catholic writers, to serve the purpose of the times, and to vindicate, in some manner, the bold doctrine of the see of Rome, that the Gospel had been preached in every corner of the world, at a time when new worlds were discovered, in which it was evident that the Gospel could never have been promulgated, and others in which Christians were found, who would not acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, and who differed in the most substantial articles of faith from the Roman Catholics, yet this improbable story has a long time been afferted, and repeated by even Protestant writers, as BALDAEUS and VALENTYN.

AIL traditions and Malabar records agree, that the Syrian Christians, or Nazaranee Mapilas, were known, and had been settled, on the Malabar coast,

long before either the Arabs or the Jews.

COMMON tradition, which has even been admitted by the Portuguese writers of the 16th century, probably on the foundation of written records in the Syrian language, which then existed, and were afterwards all destroyed by the famous Archbishop DE MENEZES at the Synod of Odiamper, mentions MAR THOME' as the first who introduced the Christian religion into Malabar. He is confidered by the Nestorians, as their first bishop and founder, from whom they derive their name of St. Thomé Christians. His arrival may be placed towards the middle of the 5th century: fince notice is taken by Cosmas Indopleustes (page 178-179) of Christians in the Pepper Country or Malé, who received their bishops from Persia, where the Nestorian Patriarch of that time resided, who had first his seat in Seleucia, Seleucia, in Persia; afterwards at Babylon; and lastly, at Mosul.

In the Malabar histories [Kerul Oodputtee] the first mention of a Syrian colony of Christians is made in the reign of Cocoorangon Perumal, who probably lived in the 6th century. A wealthy Syrian merchant, of the name of THOME CANNANEO, is faid to have landed at Cranganore, where he was well received, and induced to fettle by great privileges granted to him by the PERUMAL. He afterwards married two wives; one of the Nair, and one of fome low cast; by whom he had a very numerous progeny, who, after his death, had great disputes about his inheritance. These were carried to such a degree, that at last they were obliged to separate themselves; the sons by the Nair woman settling in the fouthern parts, and the others in the northern parts of Malaber; where their descendants, for a long time. preserved this mutual enmity, and would on no atcount intermarry. There is also still a common tradition amongst them, that they descende (at least those that are from Syrian origin) from four principal Syrian families, who had successively settled on the coast.

We find again mention made of two Syrian or Chaldean bishops, of the name of Mar Sabro, and Mar Brodt, (or rather Mar Sapor, and Mar Peroses,) at Coilan, about one hundred years after its foundation, where they were extremely well received by the Raja, and permitted to build a church, which was still extant when Cabral first visited Coilan. The grants and privileges which they received from the Raja, were engraved upon copperplates, which many centuries after were shewn to Archbishop De Menezes at Tevalcare, (perhaps Mavileare,*) which are, in all probability, the very same that are now in possession of the Jews at Cochin.

^{*} Vide Historia Synodi Diamperitanze, page 8.

Ir one adds to these historical dates, the name of Syrians, retained by the St. Thomé Christians; their distinct features, and complexion, somewhat fairer than the rest of the Malabars; the style of their building, especially their churches; but, above all, the general use of the Syrian, or rather Chaldwan, language, which is preferved to this day in all their religious functions, even in those churches which have fince embraced the Roman rite, and that to this day they take their christian and family names from the Syrian or Chaldwan idiom; no doubt can remain, but that the St. Thomé Christians are originally a colony of Nellerians, who fled from the dominions of the Greek Emperors, after Theodosius the Second had commenced to persecute the followers of the sect.*

THEY made at first some proselytes amongst the Bramins and Nairs, and were on that account much respected by the native princes, so that even at prefent they consider themselves equal in rank to either of the above two casts. They are, in fact, in much greater estimation amongst the Hindoos, than the

Qui amplissimam obtenuerunt ædificandarum Ecclesiarum in iis regionibus facultatem, proventibus etiam ad hoc non exiguis attributis, cujus privilegii aliorumque exemplar laminis ænis insculptum, litteris non tantum Malabaricis, verum Canarinis, Tamulanis, et Bisnaguricis exaratum ostensum fuit Menessio in Tevalacare, ubi inter pretiosiores Ecclesiæ res in Cimeliarchio asservabatur.

* NESTORIUS was Patriarch of Constantinople, A. D. 428, under the reign of Theodosics the Second. His heretical opinions were first declared in 420, and condemned by the first Council of Ephesus in 431. But the Emperor was not prevailed on to banish NES-TORIUS till 4\$5; and four years more had elapsed before sentence of proscription passed against his followers. Gibbon, Vol. viii. page 297.

GIBBON, however, (b. 346,) asserts, on the authority of St. JEnome himself, (ad Marcellam Epist.) that the Indian Missionary St. Thomas was famous as early as his time. Now JEROME died in 420; consequently the sect originally established in Malabar by THOMAS could not have been that of Nesronius: yet Gibbon himself appears to have overlooked this inconsistency.

NOTE BY THE SECRETARY.

new Christians, converted by the Portuguese, and mostly picked up from the lowest cast. I have been assured by Padre Pavony, a well informed Ex-jesuit, now at Palghautcherry, who was a long time as missionary amongst the St. Thomé Christians, that many of them preserve till now the manners and mode of life of the Bramins, as to cleanliness and abstaining from animal food; and that even he himself had been obliged to adopt the same regimen in order to gain credit amongst them.

As to their former manners, customs, and the privileges which they enjoyed, the *Portuguese* authors of the *Oriente Conquistato*, and DE BARROS, give the

following account of them.

THE St. Thomé Christians possessed upwards of one hundred villages, fituated mostly in the mountainous part of the fouthern division of Malabar. Their habitations were distinguished from those of the Hizdoes by being mostly folid buildings, and collected in villages, not scattered and dispersed as those of the Bramins and Nairs. They obeyed their Arche bishop, whose seat was at Angamalee, both in ecclefiaffical and civil matters, paying a very moderate tribute to the different Rajas in whose territory they lived, who very little interfered in their concerns. When any complaints in civil matters were preferred to the Archbishop, he used to appoint arbitrators or judges, whose sentence was final; but they never condemned any person to death, but all crimes were expiated with pecuniary fines. They paid no tithes to their clergy, but at their weddings they used to offer the tenth of the marriage gift to their churches. At their weddings they were very profuse and ostentatious, and celebrated them with great pomp: it was then principally that they had occasion to make a shew of the privileges granted to them by one of the PERUMALS; as of the bride and bridegroom riding upon elephants, of having the hair ornamented with flowers of gold, of different

ferent musical instruments playing before them, as also of slags of different colours carried before them, &c. They all wore swords and targets, and some of them had firelocks: they were great marksmen, and, from their eighth year, used to frequent their firing schools. Husbandry and trade were their principal occupations; and, next to the Bramins, the St. Thomé Christians used to surnish the greatest quantity of pepper to the Portuguese cargoes.

The girls were precluded from all inheritance, even if no fons were in the family; in which case the inheritance went to the next male cousin or uncle on the father's side. This singular law, which is so contrary to all Malabar customs, has unquestionably been imported from Syria, and serves as an additional proof of the St. Thomé Christians being originally

Syrian colonies.

As to their religious teners, they followed generally

the doctrine of NESTURIUS.

THEY rejected the divine nature of CHRIST; and called the VIRGIN MARY only the Mother of CHRIST, not of GOD. They also maintained that the HOLY GHOST proceeded only from the Father, and not from the Father and Son.

THEY admitted no images of faints in their churches, where the Holy Cross alone was to be seen.

They had only three Sacraments, Baptism, Eucharist, and the Orders; and would not admit transub-stantiation in the manner the Roman Catholics do. They knew nothing of purgatory; and the saints, they said, were not admitted to the presence of GOD, but were kept in a third place till the day of judgment.

Their priests were permitted to marry at least once in their life. Their rite was the Chaldean or

Syrian.

They were married in the presence of their priests, who are called Cassanas; and the whole ceremony consisted in tying a string round the girl's neck, as is the common practice of all the different casts on the Malabar coast.

The

THE Cassans were not permitted to use the Malabar language in their churches, and in instructing the youth, but taught them in the Chaldwan tongue.

THEY reckoned their Sunday from Saturday evening vespers, till the first matin of Sunday, so that

after sun-rise they might work again.

This was the happy situation of the Nestorians, or St. Thomé Christians, before the arrival of the Portuguese in India. Agreeably to the spirit of those times, and especially of that bigoted nation, one of their first endeavours was to win over those heretics to the Roman rite: every art, and every resource, was exhausted, especially during the reign of Don MANUEL, to reclaim those forlorn fons to the bosom of the church of Rome: but all peaceable and conciliatory means proved fruitless; though the fly Jefuits had in some manner paved the way to an union, by mitigating the terms of their submission under the supremacy of the Pope; by instituting seminaries, in which the Chaldwan language was taught to the young clergy; and, above all, by translating the Missal, and Roman Catechism, into the same language, and distributing them amongst the Syrian Christians. they would not have succeeded, so stedfast did the St. Thomé Christians adhere to their herefy, had not at last open force been employed.

THE then Archbishop of Angamalee was a Syrian priest, of the name of MAR JOSEPH; and as neither bribes nor menaces could induce him to acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, the Archbishop of Goa, and the Viceroy, at last arrested him, and sent him prisoner to Portugal: but he had the art to ingratiate himself with the Queen Donna Catharina, and the rest of the Royal Family, whom he had made to believe, that he had since been convinced of the truth of the Catholic religion; and that, on his return, he would bring about a re-union of his slock with the see of Rome; so that in the year 1564 he was permitted to return, with orders to the Viceroy No-Vol. VII.

RONHA, to restore him, and to afford him in future,

every possible protection and assistance.

In the mean time, the St. Thomé Christians had applied to the then Patriarch of Babylon, as foon as they heard of the confinement and subsequent transportation of their Archbishop to Portugal, for a new Metropolitan, whom they obtained in the person of MAR ABRAHAM. But he had hardly taken possestion of his fee, when MAR JOSEPH returned from Europe, with his diplomas from Donna Catha-RINA. The consequence was an immediate schism: and the whole Malabar Christians divided themfelves into two parties; one adhering to MAR JOSEPH, and the other to MAR ABRAHAM. But MAR Jo-SEPH being supported by the whole power of the Portuguese government, he soon got the better of his antagonist, whom the Rajas of Cochin and Parcor received orders to feize, and to deliver to the commandant of Cochin, in order to be sent to Europe. The vessel on board of which he was, happening to touch at Mosambique, he found means to make his escape, and to reach Babylon over land; but, instead of returning to Malabar, he resolved to go of his own accord to Rome, where he did not fail to captivate the mind of Pope Pius IV. in such a manner, that his recantation of the Nestorian heresy was gladly received, and himself newly ordained, and confecrated, and loaded with the highest ecclesiastical dignities: though amongst his papers were found afterwards a protestation of his stedfast adherence to his former doctrine, the abjuring of which, he said, was the only resource to save his life. He had also written letters to the same effect to India, which fell afterwards into the hands of the Archbishop Dz MENEZES.

THE Portuguese clergy, however, were not less displeased with the conduct of MAR JOSEPH; who, notwithstanding all his promises to the Queen, and his protestations made to the Archbishop of Goa, and the the Portuguese government, continued to govern his flock after the tenets of Nestorius, and to prevent rather than to promote a re-union with the Roman Catholics; so that a new order for his imprisonment was issued in the year 1567. He was a second time transported; first to Portugal, and afterwards to Rome, where he likewise contrived to make his peace with the Pope: but, before he could undertake a new voyage to India, he died at Rome, on the eve of being made a cardinal.

MAR ABRAHAM had, in the mean time, arrived at Goa, with new authority, and with brevets from the Pope; but the famous Archbishop De Menezes, on examining them, pretended that MAR ABRAHAM had deceived his Holiness, and took upon himself to confine him in a convent, from which, however, he foon found means to make his escape, and to reach Angamalee over land, where he was seceived with uncommon exultation by all the St. Thomé Christians; and from dire experience he learned to take now fuch precautions, that he put it out of the power of the Viceroy to get a third time hold of his person; and, after some fruitless attempts, he was effectually left in quiet possession of his see till his death: but at the same time the most vigorous measures were taken by the Portuguese government, that no Syrian priest might in future find his way to the Malabar Chrif-As they were then mafters of Ormuz, and the whole navigation on this fide India, it is not furprifing that they succeeded in preventing all intercourse between the Nestorian Patriarch at Babylon, and the St. Thomé Christians at Angamalee. stand even accused of having drowned a new Syrian Bishop in the year 1644, in the road of Cochin. Repeated orders were also sent from Rome, not to allow. after Mar Abraham's death, that another Archbishop of Syrian extraction should be nominated. MAR ABRAHAM died about the year 1597, in . very advanced age, professing to the last moment of his B b 2

life, his adherence to the Nestorian church, and his abhorrence of the tenets of the Popish religion. The Archbishop of Goa, Menezes, immediately appointed a Jesuit, Franciscus Roz, to fill the vacant seat of Angamalee; but to no effect; for he was not acknowledged, nor admitted, by the St. Thomé Christians, who had previously elected a priest of their own, of the name of George, for their Archdeacon, till a new Metropolitan could be procured from Babylon.

Menezes resolved now to visit in person the Malabar Christians, and to try if, by his presence and influence, he could bring about a fincere and lasting The appearance of a man of his birth, rank, re-union. wealth, and power, as Primate of India, to which he joined an equal zeal, devotion, and great private virtue, was decifive. The ferlorn George employed, at first, every evasion and subterfuge, that his natural fagacity, and his great attachment to his fect, could fuggest, in order to gain time for a new Bishop to arrive from Babylon, who might be able to meet ME-NEZES upon equal terms: but no Bishop from Babylon did, or could, make good his voyage to India; and MENEZES was indefatigable, bold, persevering, and lavish of his wealth; and had all the petty Rajas of that time at his command. He appointed, at last, a mock council, or fynod, at Odiamper, in the vicinity of Coehin, in the year 1599, where he affembled molt of the Syrian priefts, or Cassanas, and four elders from each village; and after some shew of disputation, and explanation of the controverted tenets of the church of Rome, he proceeded to dictate the law to them, there being not a person of sufficient erudition, or of confideration and influence enough amongst the Cassanas, who could dare to oppose MENEZES: and, to appearance, the Nestorians of Malabar were united to the Roman church.*

MENEZES

^{*} We cannot sufficiently lament the great loss which literature sustained

Menezes appointed Roz a second time Archbishop of the Syrian Christians; who, instead of Angamalee, took now his residence at Cranganore; and, since that time, a great part of the St. Thomé Christians remained united with the Roman church, and were governed by the successors of Roz, under the title of Archbishop of Cranganore.

This re-union of the St. Thomé Christians to the see of Rome was, however, neither general, nor sincere and lasting: for, a short time after, some Maronites, or Nestorian priests, found their way to the mountains of Travancore, where they revived the old doctrines and rites, and ever since kept up their communication with the Jacobites, Maronites, and Nestorians of Syria. At present there are thirty-two churches of this description remaining, which are called Schismatic Syrians by the Portuguese and Roman clergy. They have a Bishop, or Mar Thome, who resides at Narnatte, about ten miles in land from Porca; and was consecrated by some Jacobite Bishops sent from Antiochia for that purpose in the year 1752. He adheres more to the doctrine of Eutiches than of Nestorius.

ABOUT 84 of the old St. Thomé churches remain united to the Roman Catholic religion, and are governed by the Archbishop of Cranganore, or, as he used to style himself, the Archbishop of the Malabar B b 3 Christians

sustained on that occasion; for this blind and enthusiastic inquisitor, destroyed, like a second Omar, all the books written in the Syrian or Chaldwan language, which could be collected, not only at the Synod of Odiamper, but especially during his subsequent circuit; for as soon as he had entered into a Syrian Church, he ordered all their books and records to be laid before him; which, a few indifferent ones excepted, he committed to the flames; so that at present neither books nor manuscripts are any more to be found amongst the St. Thomé Christians.

Christians of the Mountains. Since the death of the last Archbishop, the Governor of Goa, who had formerly the nomination, thought proper to appoint only a Vicar General, who resides at present at Pecke palliporte. He is a native of Malabar, of Syrian extraction, of the name of Thome' Enamakel. These united St. Thomé Christians retain only the peculiarity of the Chaldwan language being still used in their churches, for which they are furnished with the necessary books from the Congregatio de propaganda side; printed at Rome 774, under the title, Ordo Chaldaicus Missa Beatorum Apostolorum juxta ritum ecclesia Malabaria, and Ordo Chaldaicus rituum et Lectionum juxta morem ecclesia Malabaria. Rome: 1775.

THE St. Thome or Syrian Christians of both descriptions, never claimed the particular protection of either the Portuguese or Dutch, as the new Christians do, but considered themselves as subjects of the different Rajas in whose districts they lived; and as long as the old Hindoo system, and the former division of the country, under a variety of petty Rajas, was preferved, they appear to have enjoyed the same degree of freedom, ease, and consideration, as the Nairs. But when the Rajas of Travancore and Cochin had subjected to themselves all the petty Rajas and chiefs whose respective territories were situated within the lines of Travancore, they also overturned the whole political fystem established by CHERUMA PERUMAL; and by fetting aside the immunities and privileges of the higher casts, they established a most oppresfive despotism, in the room of the former mild limited oligarchy: and we ought not to be much furprised to behold the present wretched situation of those formerly so flourishing Syrian villages, fince we see the Bramins and Nairs stript of most of their

old prerogatives, and subject to almost the same oppressions and extortions.

THE NEW OR PORTUGUESE CHRISTIANS.

They consist of that race of new converts whom the Portuguese made mostly from the lowest casts along the sea-shore, where they built a great many churches; which, in distinction from the Syrians, are generally called the Latin churches. They consider themselves not as subjects of the different Rajas in whose territory they reside, but enjoyed formerly the protection of both the Portuguese and the Dutch governments, to a great extent. They acknowledged only their jurifdiction in civil and criminal matters, and paid no taxes to the native princes. This exemption they maintained, in some manner, till the year 1785, when Mr. VAN ANGELBECK. then governor of Cochin, faw no other remedy to fave at least part of their privileges from the daily increasing power of the Raja of Cochin, but to enter into a new written agreement with the Raja: in conformity to which, they were to pay a certain stipulated fum yearly to the Raja, which should be collected by their own head people; and in case of delays or failure, the Dutch government was to enforce payment, and not the Raja. Another article defined the juisdiction which the Dutch should still exercife over them. But even these stipulations the Raja did not long nor scrupulously adhere to, till, at last, he went so far as to turn a great part of them fairly out of his dominions, by obliging them to accept some trisling consideration for the landed estates which they were compelled to abandon; and the rest he he treated, if poslible, more severely than his own Hindoo subjects.

THE number of these Christians, who consider themselves as under the protection of the Fort of Cochin, is computed to amount to about 36,000.

In ecclesiastical matters, they were formerly subject to the Portuguese Bishop of Cochin, whom the Dutch expelled as soon as they got possession of the Fort. Thence he went to fix his residence at Coilan, retaining, however, his former appellation of Bishop of Cochin, and a great part of his former ecclesiastical jurisdiction over all the churches that were not under the immediate controul of the Dutch. His successors continue to preside over the same diocese, which extends as far as the Cavery river, on the other coast, including the Island of Ceylon; comprehending more than 100 churches of the new or Latin Christians.

WHEN, for political reasons, the Dutch had expelled the Portuguese Bishops from Cochin, in order that the churches, which were now under their immediate protection, should not remain without an ecclesialtical chief, they applied to the see of Rome for a new Bishop, who would be under their controul, and whom they could better trust than a vassal of Portugal. The Pope, in compliance with their wishes, sent out a Carmelite Friar, with episcopal powers, under the name of Vicar General, and the States General granted him a diploma to that purpose in the year 1698.

THEY made it, however, an express condition with the Pope, that he should appoint no Vicar General who was not by birth either a German, Dutchman, or Italian; the company reserving to themselves the right of rejecting him if they had any exception against his person; and that in general, he must consider himself as subject to the Company's or-

ders.

His paltry allowance of about 400 rupees per annum,

annum, is paid by the Congregatio de propaganda fide; and his residence is at Varapoly, in a convent of his own order, which is also supported by the propaganda.

His diocese extended formerly as far as the political influence of the *Dutch* could reach; and with the gradual decline of their power, he also lost successively the greatest part of his churches; which returned either under the *Portuguese* Bishop of *Coilan*, or the *Vicar General* of the *Syrian* churches brought over to the *Latin* rite; so that at present only sourceen churches remain under his episcopal jurisdiction.

The ruins of an old Syrian or Nestorian church are still extant, on a rising ground at the eastern extremity of the village of Coorty, two miles distant from Ramiseram Gate, on the high road leading to Trichoor. It was the first Christian temple that Tippoo's bigoted fanaticism doomed to destruction, after his successful storm on the too extensive and seeble barrier, the Travancore lines, in 1790; from whence a general conslagration of all Hindoo temples and Christian villages, with their churches, marked the progress of the destroying host, as far as Varapoly; and in the space of three days, thirteen large and, in many respects, handsome piles of building were laid in ruins.

Almost all temples belonging to the St. Thomé Christians in the southern Malabar, of which I had occasion to observe more than forty, were built in the same style, and nearly upon the same plan. The façade with little columns (evidently in imitation of the style of architecture prevalent in Asia Minor and Syria, from which the Christian religion, and with it the model of their temples, appears to have been transplanted into Malabar) being every where the same; only that those belonging to the old Nestorians, or Schismatics, have preserved their ancient sim-

plicity, and that the fronts of such as adopted afterwards the Latin rite, and acknowledged the supremacy of the Roman see, are decorated with Saints in niches or basso-relievos, and that some of the most conspicuous had an arched choir. The largest Christian temple was at Alangadee, or Mangatte, sive miles from Paroor; and, to judge from the present ruins, it must have been a very handsome and noble structure. At Angamalee, the seat of the Syrian Metropolitan, there were not less than three spacious temples, not inferior to the specimen exhibited in the ruins of Coorty. But they have all been converted into heaps of ruins, by the destroying hand of the Mysorean invader; as was also the neat church and college built by the Jesuits at Amblagatte.

THE great number of such sumptuous buildings as the St. Thomé Christians possessed in the inland parts of the Travancore and Cochin dominions is really surprifing; fince some of them, upon a moderate calculation, must have cost upwards of one lack of rupees, and few less than half that sum. How different must have been the fituation of this people in former times, in comparison with the wretched condition in which we behold them at present! scarcely able to erect a cadian shed for their religious meetings over those splendid ruins, that attest, at the same time, their former wealth and present poverty. In the same proportion that their opulence decreased, their population appears also to have diminished. Alangada contained, before the year 1750, more than a thousand Christian families, who lived in substantial houses, of which the ruins are still extant, and bear evidence to the fact. Of those families not full one hundred are now remaining, and them I found in the most abject flate of misery. The same melancholy contrast is observable at Angamalee, and many other formerly opulent Christian towns and villages.

THEIR

THEIR pristine flourishing condition, and even opulence, however, can easily be accounted for. The bulk of the St. Thomé Christians consisted mostly of converts from the Bramin and Shoudren cast; and not, as the new Christians, or proselytes made by the Portuguese missionaries, of the lower tribes: and as the introduction and propagation of the Chriftian religion, by the Syrian adventurers, probably fo early as the fifth century, gave no umbrage to the PERUMALS, who, at that period, governed Malabar, these converts were allowed to retain their patrimonial estates, with equal security, and exemption from taxes, as the indigenous Bramins and Nairs. For. under the ancient mild Hindoo government, and even in modern times, till Hyder Ally made his first irruptions, imposts on landed property were unknown in Malabar. The St. Thomé Christians posfessed, in addition, another source of wealth, which was trade. They were, in fact, the only, at least the principal merchants in the country, till the Arabs settled on the coast; and they continued in a flourishing lituation till towards the middle of the prefent æra, when the Rajahs of Travancore and Cochin overturned the whole system and laws established by the celebrated CHERUMA PERUMAL; and, after difpossessing the independent Rajahs of Paroor, Alangada, Tekencoor, Waddakencoor, Porka, Coilan, Calli-coilan, and many other petty Nair chiefs, under the name of CAYMALS, who formed the states of the country, and were long a strong barrier against the attempts at absolute power by the Rajahs, they divided into unequal shares the whole of the conquered countries, of which the Raja of Travancore appropriated to himself by far the greatest part, and introduced the present oppressive system of government: if that can be called fuch, which is, in fact, an injudicious imitation of the late Mysorean system of finances; without the order, regularity, and in some manner

380 ACCOUNT OF THE ST., THOME' CHRISTIANS.

manner impartial administration of justice, which is necessary to support it, and without which it must unavoidably degenerate into endless and generally destructive schemes of extortion and rapine, that soon or late must bring such unhappy countries, let their natural resources be ever so great, to the lowest state of wretchedness; as is already the case both in the Travancore and Cochin dominions.

Note on KEROL OODPUTTEE, page 367.

Several copies of this valuable historical monument are in the possession of the writer of this, of which he purposes to publish a free translation at some future period. The name given to these annals of Malabar is differently spelled and explained; some call it Keralalpaddy, which means the Common-wealth of Malabar, or Kerala, (the Sanscrit name for Malabar:) others write Keralawilpatty, and translate it Historical Account or Description of Kerala, which is the original name to the low country, and still used in Sanscrit; for the hill country had existed long before, and was known under the name of Mala, or Malleam, the Hill Country; but, in the lapse of time, the name of Malleam prevailed, and was applied to both the hilly and the low country, and the name of Kerala became obsolete.

XIV.

ACCOUNT of an hereditary living DEITY, To whom Devotion is paid by the BRAMINS of POONA and its Neighbourhood.

By CAPTAIN EDWARD MOOR.

THE opportunity afforded me of visiting the city of *Poona* with the embassy in 1800, I eagerly embraced, to obtain information respecting an extraordinary family, which enjoys the distinction of an hereditary incarnation of the divinity from father to son; and the following is the result of my researches. My opportunities for inquiry were favourable, and I consider my authorities tolerably good; but I think it necessary to premise, that I do not pledge myself for the minute veracity of every particular.

MOORABA Gosseyn was a Bramin of Poona, who, by abstinence, mortification, and prayer, merited, above others, the favourable regards of the Almighty. Gunputty, the most common name in this country, among the many hundreds of Sree Ganesa, accordingly vouchfased to appear to him, at Chinchoor,* in a vision by night; desired him to arise, and bathe; and while in the act of ablution, to seize, and hold sacred to the godhead, the first tangible substance that his hand encountered. The God covenanted that a portion of his Holy Spirit should pervade the person thus savoured, and be continued

[•] This town is also called Chicoor, Chicorce, or Chintipwar: the latter is, perhaps, the most correct orthography.

as far as the seventh generation to his seed, who were to become successively hereditary guardians of this sacred substance, which proved to be a stone, in which the God was to be understood as mystically typisted. This type is duly reverenced, is carefully preserved, and hath ever been the constant companion of the sanctified person inheriting with it the divine patrimony.

This annunciation happened about the year A. D.

1640, and fix generations have fince passed away.

Ir doth not now appear what was the precise extent of the divine energy originally conceded; but it is inferred to have been a limited power of working miracles: such as healing sickly uncleanliness; granting, to a certain degree, the desires of pious suppliants; and the faculty of foretelling, under some

restrictions, the events of futurity.

These gifts appear, indeed avowedly, to have been enjoyed in a more extensive degree by the first possessions than by the latter. The Bramins admit that the farther they remove from the favoured man in whom the God became incarnate, the greater is the chance of degeneracy; although such degeneracy might not have been inevitable. It is therefore presumable that the early inheritors worked more conspicuous miracles than have of late been manifested. Some remains of supernatural power have, however, been remarked, as will be noticed, in the existing incumbent, Gabase Deo.

THE holy inheritance has thus descended.

MOORABA GOSSEYN had but one son, CHINTO MUN Deo, (the 1st) at the time of the visitation; and as he immediately became Sunna-assec, he had of course no other; to him about the year 1650 sell the godly estate. His eldest son, NARRAIN DEO, succeeded, and, after dispensing his miraculous energies twenty-five years, died, leaving them to Chinto

Mun

MUN DEO, (the 2d.) His eldest son, DURNEE DURR DEO, succeeded, and died about the year 1770, from which period his first born, GABAJEE DEO, has possessed, with its sanctified accompaniment, the guardianship of the facred stone.

The divine donation was covenanted to continue but for seven generations: whence, on the demise of Bawa Deo, the present heir apparent, to whom, in the fulness of time, it will descend, the holy incarnation, unless perpetuated by farther miracles, will, as an emanation from God, be absorbed in him.

It doth not appear that every DEO (by which title the representative of this family is always called) hath performed miracles. One is mentioned of the original founder of this incarnate godhead, if it may be so called, which produced the first worldly possession of the family.

Soon after his visitation, and while in great powerty, he was passing by Panowla, a town near Chinchoor, the Pataleen * of which place having been many years married, without male issue, despaired of ever obtaining that blessing. She implored and obtained the holy man's prayers, bestowed on him the produce of a field, situated near Panowla, of the annual average value of three hundred rupees. With this a temple was endowed at Chincoor, which still enjoys the grateful gift, and had not for many years any other secular estate.

No miracle, that I have heard of, is recorded of

the next legatee.

NARRAIN DEO, the third in lineal afcent from the present DEO, performed a more important and confpicuous miracle. It was in his time that the Moghul army of Hydurabal so successfully invaded the Maratta

Maratta territories. After plundering and burning Poona, a party proceeded to Chinchoor, to lay it under contribution. To this the DEO pointedly refused to submit, confiding in the divine influence wherewith he was invested. The intolerant Musulmans derided such superstition; and, with the view of rendering it ridiculous, offered to fend a nuzur to the DEO. The offer was accepted; the DEO betook himself to prayers, and the insulting bigots deputed certain persons, accompanied by many voluntary attendants, to fee the humorous refult, with a ceremonious and apparently decorous and appropriate prefent. It, however, confished solely of cow's slesh; and when the offensive obtruders promised themselves their sport, at the first exhibition of so horrid an abomination, how were thay aftonished and dismayed, at uncovering trays of the finest and most sacred of Hindoo flowers!

STRUCK with the miracle, "those who went to scoff, remained to pray," and refraining from farther

indecency, recognised the finger of God.

So unequivocal an interpolition of supernatural power wrought on the unyielding minds of the Mufulmans; and, to expiate their offence, a grant was soon after made by them, of lands, towns, &c. situated in the Mpghul territories, and not their recent conquests, although not far from Chinchoor, of the yearly value of twenty-seven thousand rupees, which the temple enjoys to this day.

A FARTHER grant of enaam lands about Chinchoor, of thirteen thousand rupees per annum, was made, at different times, by a late Peshwa, on what account, whether miraculous or not, I do not learn. The Bramins, however, admit such donations to be in themselves miracles; the generous impulse being from divine inspiration. These three grants the temple still enjoys, and they constitute its permanent

revenue

revenue. The expences attending the charitable works of the Deo, such as supporting sacred establishments, feeding and nourishing Bramins, and holy and poor people, have amounted of late years, it is averred, on an average, to a lakh of rupees. Part of this is made up by the casual presents made by pious visitants, according to their faith, hope; or charity, but doth not amount, in general, to more than five thousand rupees; and the deficiency, of more than half a lakh, is therefore acknowledged to be miraculously acquired.

I will digress a moment here, to observe, that it is not a very uncommon circumstance for a holy man professing poverty, and without the apparent means of gaining a rupee, and rejecting all offerings, to disburse thousands of rupees monthly with a very lavish hand. A convenient personage of this description resides in *Moorgoor*, a town twenty-sive miles northerly from *Darwar*. Mr. Uhthoff and I were there in 1792, but did not then know of this miraculous prodigality, as it is reputed to be.

PRESENTS are made in kind to the Deo of Chinchoor: cultivators of land bring him grain, manufactures, cloths, &c. the rich bring money, and what they please. These are laid up in store-houses, after being registered by the servants of the temple, to which are attached a dewan, chobdars, accountants, &c. &c. all Bramins, as is every individual about the Deo; his palkee-bearers on a journey only excepted.

However meritorious and honourable it may be deemed to be employed, even menially, about the fanctified person of the holy man carrying the same, a journey is rather too laborious and unprofitable a service for Bramins to undertake voluntarily. Where priests are the task-masters, it were unreasonable to expect that they, more—than others, would allot the

severest to themselves.

Vol. VII. C c THE

DEO is, ex officio, what is called a dewanna—but the term "fool," may not in this inftance, as in most others, give the best translation of the word. He is totally unmindful and ignorant of worldly affairs—unable, they say, to hold conversation beyond the proposition, reply, and rejoinder, and then in a childish blubbering manner. To some questions on points of suturity, he replies, accordingly as he is inspired, in pointed negatives or affirmatives; to others enigmatically, or by benignant or indignant gesture: sometimes he is totally silent, and, apparently absorbed in abstract cogitation, doth not recognize the suppliant. From such data is deduced how propitious, or otherwise, is the almighty will on the pursuits of the petitioner.

THE ordinary occupations of the DEO do not differ materially from those of other holy men: he eats, takes wives to himself, &c. &c. like other Bramins, but by some is said to be exempt from illness; others say he is subject to bodily infirmities. So regular a life, however, in point of regimen, unruffled by worldly cares, may well ensure a continuance of health, and, in general, prolongation of existence.

As the elder fon inherits the spark of divinity, it is necessary that he also be a fool, as he hath ever proved. To the question "whether, the second son being sane, and the elder dying without male issue, the second, to whom the patrimony then descends, would become dewanna on his accession?" the Bramins demur: It hath never, they say, happened. God made the covenant, and the means of sulfilling it are not for man to point out.

However remote the degree of confanguinity may be, all of this family assume the final name Deo. It did not occur to me to inquire if the females are peculiarly estimable—I judge not very highly so, from never having heard of exalted pertonages seeking them as wives. The males, indeed,

do not, beyond the reigning family, feem much dif-

tinguished.

IT might not be very interesting, if practicable, to trace minutely the genealogy of this family to its holy root; and I shall go no farther in this retrospect than to the immediate ancestors of the present Deo. He, Durnee Dur Deo, called also Durnee Dur Bawa, had four sons (no daughters) by his only wife Aakah, who died in 1780, aged 65; about ten years after her husband, who lived to be nearly sour-score.

1. GABAJEE DEO, born about 1740.

2. Gunnaba Deo, born about 1750, died 1795.

3. MOORABA DEO, born about 1755, now living at Ranjangow, of which temple he is superior.

4. BAPPAJEE DEO, born about 1760, now living at

Ojoor, where he is head Bramin.

GABAJEE DEO married, I. ABBAJEE, who, in 1775, bore him, when she was twenty years old, his only. son, BABA DEO, and died without further issue, at the age of 26. 2, ABBAJEE, now living, about 35 years of age, who has proved barren.

BABA, or BAWA DEO, married, 1. NEEROBA, 25, born about 1780, still living, by whom he has an only daughter, born in 1797. 2d wife, name not known, born about 1784. This ends the eldest branch of the

family.

GUNNABA DEO, the second son, had two sons, who are living, as is their mother, at Seedatak, names not

known.

MOORABA DEO, the third son, had only one wife, and by her one son, whose name does not occur. That son was eighteen years old in 1798, in which year he bruised himself to death on the pedestal of his god at Ranjangow, in consequence of some indignities offered him, or the temple, by a party of Sender's soldiery: his widow is living childless, although the marriage was consummated at Ranjangow. This ends the third branch.

BAPPAJEE DEO, the fourth son, has one wife, Gungabaee, now living, about thirty-five years; they have two sons. 1. Baaow Deo, born about 1786. 2. Nanna Deo, born in 1787. Both living at Ojoor. The eldest lost his wife in 1799, who had borne him a son in 1797, named Heerum Deo, now living: he is married again, but his living wife is only eight years old. Nanna Deo has a wife twelve years old—no child.

The temple of this BAPPAJEE DEO, at Ojoor, enjoys enaam land to the value of four thousand rupees a year, granted by the present Peshwa, in consequence of supposed benefits received from the holy man's prayers.

GARAJEE DEO goes at least thrice a year, on fixed days, to Moorishwur, a respectable town a few miles beyond Jejooree. A detail of the circumstances of his journey, which seldom vary materially, will tend to illustrate his character, and show the degree of estimation in which he is held.

ONE of the days is the 2d of Maug, answering this year to the 31st of January. He leaves Chinchoor pretty early; and the Peshwa and court, apprised of his approach, go forth to meet him, generally about halfway between a hill called Gunniskunda, two miles off, and the city. The DEO rides in his palkee, attended (I speak now of the prefent DEO) by a suwaree elephant, given him by the late Peshwa, MAD, HOO RA, o, a sew (perhaps a dozen) of his own domestic horsemen, and about a hundred servants on foot: as he approaches the Peshwa, his palkee is put down, and he seats himself on a carpet, with the facred stone, which he never quits, in a box beside him. The Peshwa alights from his palkee or elephant, advances toward the DEO with folded hands, the posture of a suppliant, prostrates himself, and kiffes his feet. The Dro neither rifes, nor makes a falaani, but with his hands raised a little, with the palms downward, makes a benedictory gesticulation, accompanied

accompanied by a motion, fignifying his defire that his visitor may be seated. The Peshwa, and a sew distinguished persons, such as IMRIT RAO, CHIMNA APPA, &c. fit, but at some distance, on the carpet. Two or three questions and answers of supplication and bleffing are exchanged; and the DEO bestows on the Peshwa, and others, a quantity of rice and dal, perhaps a cocoa-nut, or such trisse. Peshwa receives them, makes a humble obeisance. and takes leave. The DEO enters his palkee, and proceeds, followed by the Peshwa, &c. by the wooden bridge to the city. The Peshwa quits him near the palace, which the DEO never enters, nor the house of any mortal, but always finds his tents pitched at fixed stations. The first is Tecoor, a respectable town about ten or twelve miles from Poona; the next Rajwarry, a large village or town just above the ghaut, on the Jejooree, or Meritch road. At both these stages the DEO prepares a feast for all Bramins that choose to partake. He goes next day to Mori/hwur, where he remains in his tent three or four days; and here the principal event of his journey is particularly noticed. On a certain day he orders a portion of rice to be cooked, the quantity is determined by the inspiration of the Deity. The Deo has no premeditation; his impulses are divine and momentary. This quantity of rice, be it one kundee, one and a half, two, two and a half, or three kundees, (these have been the quantities usually ordered;) as to sufficiency or insufficiency for such as choose to cat of it, determine the bounty or scarcity of the enfuing year.

For instance, say one kundee shall usually suffice one thousand men of ordinary appetites, if this quantity be ordered, and sour thousand, or more persons, shall assemble to partake of it, they shall nevertheless all depart satisfied, if the Almighty intend a sufficient season. Nay, if an abundant year be willed, frag-

ments, in proportion to the superabundance, shall remain.

IF, on the other hand, three kundees be cooked, and but one thousand, or fewer, persons partake thereof, they shall notwithstanding remain unsatisfied, although the whole shall have been eaten, should the displeasure of God threaten the land with scar-

city.

THE actions of the DEO on the night of this day are also minutely watched: as his actions, as well as words, are but the transient manifestations of the Almighty will, totally unpremeditated, and unrecognized by the DEO, they are noted as prophetic. Should he remain the night through in peaceful repose, national repose is thence predicted; should his flumber, or his waking moments, be perturbed, similar mishaps threaten the public weal. If, as hath happened, he starts wildly from his feat or couch, feizes a sword or spear, or makes any movements indicating martial measures, a war, attended by circumstances deduced from the nature of such movements, is foretold. Every circumstance of this kind is carefully noted by persons employed by government; all is carefully confidered, and reported accordingly, with appropriate inferences.

THE following is the miracle before hinted at, as performed by GABAJEE DEO, the only one that has come to my knowledge, excepting that continued one, as the *Bramins* affirm it to be, of miraculous prodigality. Living beyond one's visible means, seems a very loose argument in proof of a miracle, and would, I apprehend, be susceptible of application too extensive to allow of its being considered as

legitimate.

A WELL-known Sahookar of *Poona*, named TRIMBUK DAS, had, for many years, laboured under a cruel and unfeemly disease, called here *koora*; it appears in white patches, of the fize of a rupee, some larger.

larger, some smaller, all over the body, and although faid not to be leprous, is clearly referrable to that class of disease. Trimbuk Das was afflicted to an offensive degree; but the disease, after baffling every effort of skill that could be exerted, yielded to the prayers of GABAJEE DEO, seconded by the longproved piety of the patient; who undeviatingly, during a course of I think seven or eight years, vifited the holy man on a certain day of every moon, using, on his return home, in partial and general lavements, the purifying water with which he and others had devoutly washed the feet of the sanctified personage: from such faith and piety he became whole and clean, and is now a perfectly figlitly man. Very few years have elapsed fince this miracle was completed.

The foregoing is the refult of my inquiries on the fubject of the Chinchoor Deo, to which tedious detail I have to add an account of a vifit we paid him

on the 10th of January, 1800.

I HAD expected to find Chinchoor, like Jejooree, filled with beggars; but was mistaken, for it bears the appearance of an industrious town; the houses are good, the firects clean, the shops well supplied, and the ground about it indicating featonable cultivation: the town is pleafantly fituated on the left bank of a pretty river, and is faid to contain five thousand inhabitants, including three hundred Bramin families. We arrived early, and, after feeing the principal temples, which are near the river, and the environs of the town, we took our breakfast of milk, fruit, and bread, in a Bramin's house. Some of our party not being accultomed to the fociety of calves and horses, were rather annoyed by them, as well as by fmoke. Our party confitted of Colonel and LORD GEORGE BERESFORD, and my colleague Mr. LOVETT. A Bramin to introduce us to the DEO, an old acquaintance and fellow-traveller of mine. Another

other Bramin in office about the DEO, with whom I formed an acquaintance, in view to gathering the information detailed in this letter; and a Bruhmucharee from Bunarus, who was our constant companion.

and seemed to care little for any other society.

ABOUT nine o'clock we were informed that the DEO. who intuitively knew of our visit, had finished his prayers, and would fee us. We accordingly proceeded, and, after entering an extensive walled enclosure by a fortified gateway, were scated on carpets in a fort of veranda on a confined scale, into which a small door, not more than three feet by two, led from an apartment in which we learned the Deo then was: through this door none but Bramins were admitted. In two or three minutes the door opened, close to which fat the holy man, (if it be lawful to call him man,) on a shawl thrown over a seat a little raised, with another shawl over his head and shoulders. We immediately arose, and made a respectful sulam, and presented our offering, confishing of a cocoa-nut each, and a handful of rupees, about thirty. The DEO. first took very little or no notice of us, or the present, which was removed by an attending Bramin. Presently he cast his eyes full on us, and furveyed us attentively, but wildly; and fuddenly moving his head, he fixed his eyes with knitted brows on the ground, and foon as fuddenly viewed us again. Silence was now broken by our Bramins explaining to those attending who we were, (the DEO was supposed to know all about us,) and prefently the DEO himself spoke. He defired we would tell our names, which we did, and proceeded to tell our business also, namely, " to bring a letter from HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY to SREE MUNT, (the Peshwa,) which had been delivered the day before, and that now having paid our respects to MAHARAJ," (as the DEO is addressed in conversation,) " we had little else to do in this country, and should, after a

visit in the evening to Doulut RA, O SENDHEEA, return without delay to Bombay." The Deo continued fome minutes in a state of apparent cogitation, fometimes fixing his eyes, but without " speculation," on us or other objects. He presently whispered one of the Bramins; and we were defired to alk any question or questions we pleased, as that, probably, futurity would be opened to us. We were not altogether prepared for this: however, we immediately defired to know the refult of the prefent war between England and France, and when it would be terminated. It was communicated in a whisper. and in like manner directly answered by the DEO; when the Bramin declared aloud, that the existing war would affuredly terminate triumphantly and advantageously to the English within six moons. We were, for fear of trespassing, rather sparing of our questions.

THE Bruhmacharee had expressed some surprise and displeasure at the accounts we had previously given of this hereditary living Deity, and did not at this visit deport himself with such gravity and decorum as it is common for Bramins to assume. not profess any faith in the power ascribed to the DEO, of working miracles. He required, he faid, ocular demonstration of the existence of that power; nor would he credit the prophetic spirit, until manifested by the fulfilment of the prediction. particularly the first want of faith, afforded great room to gall him in argument, as he did not, perhaps, foresee the extent of the objection; for he acknowledged he had never feen a miracle performed, although he would not disavow his belief in many. Following the bent of his inquisitive disposition, he asked the names of several persons near him, who happening to be of the reigning family, assumed the patronymic final of DEO, on which he was inclined to be jocose; and we were, indeed, obliged to repress press his propensity to turning what he saw into ridicule.

AFTER fitting about twenty minutes, we asked permission to depart; and while the customary gifts on taking leave were bringing, we were desired from the Deo to require something of him. The return to this generosity was easy enough, and we accordingly implored the favour of his holiness on our country, and his prayers for its prosperity in general, and our own in particular, which were vouchfased, and in such a mode of expression as to leave an obvious opening to infer, that such savour and prayers had not been without their previous effect in raising England and Englishmen to such a pitch of of aggrandisement and general happiness. We had, therefore, only to beseech a continuance of his regard.

AT going away, the DEO gave each of us, including the Bruhmucharee, some rice and spices. We

made our reverences, and departed.

THE DEO did not appear to us to merit the appellation of *Deewanna*. His countenance is expressive, and not disagreeable; his eyes keen, complexion rather fair: he seemed about fifty-five; but is, they say, five years older; and is apparently, (but he did

not rise,) of middle stature.

WE faw also his son BAWA DEO, sitting at some distance, in the apartment with the DEO, among some Bramins. He is a sat, dark, but not very ill, although rather stupid, looking youth, about sive-and-twenty. He took no notice of our salaam, farther than vacantly staring at us: of the two, the son looked by far the most like a Deewanna in its usual signification.

I HAD nearly forgotten to mention that, during the vifit, the Bruhmucharee was invited to fee the fymbol of the divinity, the facred stone, to whose presence it was not judged advisable to admit us,

a!though

although we had been previously led to expect it: we did not, therefore, urge it; but the Bruhmucharee demurred at going, unless we also were indulged with a fight. He was, however, prevailed on to go without us; and he reported this typification to be an ordinary fort of a stone, of three or four scers, coloured red, oiled, &c.

Within the enclosure, or fortification, as it may be called, in which the Deo lives, we were shewn a large room, with another over it, in which the Deo seeds Bramins. The two, they said, would accommodate two thousand persons. The one we saw was very large, and either, they said, built by Hurry Punt, or that he had entertained a party there.

WE here put on our shoes, which we had of course quitted at the entrance of the holy ground, and departed

Letter to the Secretary from His Excellency the Honourable FREDERIC NORTH, Governor of CLYLON; introductory to the following Essay.

WILLIAM HUNTER, Esq.

Secretary to the Society for Asiatic Researches, &c. &c. &c.

SIR,

CALCUTTA.

I HAVE the Honour of transmitting to you, to be laid before the Committee of Papers, an Essay on the Religion and Customs of the Cingalese, drawn up by Mr. JOINVILLE, Surveyor-General to this Government.

It is necessary to mention, that this Essay was concluded before the arrival on this Island of the Embassy of Colonel Symes, and of the Account of the Religion and Customs of the Inhabitants of Burmah by Doctor Buchanan, contained in the Sixth Volume of the Researches of the Society.

I have the honour to be,

SIR,

Your most obedient humble Servant,

FREDERIC NORTH.

COLOMBO, a7th September, 1801.

XV.

On the Religion and Manners of the People of Ceylon.

BY MR. JOINVILLE.

Antiquity of the Religion of Boudhou.

It is generally known that the religion of Bounnou is the religion of the people of Ceylon, but
no one is acquainted with its forms and precepts. I
thall here relate what I have heard upon the subject;
and I have the satisfaction to think, that though
my information may not be altogether complete, yet
it will serve as a clue for future and deeper researches.
The first person who treats on such a subject, labours under disadvantages, which succeeding authors
know how to turn to their own account, by finishing
what a former hand had sketched, claiming the merit
of the whole work. Regardless, however, of this
consideration, I have the consolation to think, I shall
be useful to him who may next treat of the present
subject.

IF BOUDHOU be not an allegorical being, he was a man of genius, who made laws, and established a religion, over a large tract of Asia. It is hard to say whether he, Zoroaster, or Brahma, were the most ancient. In sact, it would be necessary towards the decision of this question, sirst, to establish that these three legislators had really existed, or rather if these names are not merely attributes. Zoroaster is the only one represented as a man; Brahma being always drawn as a part of, and uniting the three supreme powers, creator, preserver, and destroyer, in his own person. Boudhou is superior

to all the gods: he is, however, not what we mean by a god, being inferior to them in some things, and above them in others. He is not purely a spirit, as he has a body: he over-runs the different worlds with rapidity, in the same manner as the geniuses in the Arabian Tales, well-beloved by Vishnou, and aided by his power. He governs the bad spirits, who have withdrawn their allegiance from the gods, and who are hurtful to men; yet he is the son of a king, a husband, a father, and a pilgrim. He is eighteen cubits in the height, eats rice and vegetables, and has feveral of the attributes of humanity. is called SAMAN, the Saint by Excellence. I have made every inquiry, and have been informed that there is no etymology for the word Boudhou in the ancient languages of Cerlon. Whatever may be the opinion of the Singalest respecting him, we shall consider him as a man. As Brahma is an idea, and not a being, there can be no question about whether Boudhou lived before or after what never existed as a being. But it would be well worth ascertaining which of the two religions, of BRAHMA or of Boudhou, is the more ancient. From the fimiliarity of the two religions, there can be no doubt but that the one is the child of the other; but it is hard to know which is the mother. We find the religion of Boudhou in ancient times extending from the north of Tartary to Ceylon, and from the Indus to Siam: (I will not fay as far as China, because I do not believe that For and Boudhou were the same person.) In the same manner we see that of Brahma followed in the same countries, and for as long a frace of time. It is, therefore, not in history, but in the precepts of the two religions, that are to be found the data by which to decide this question. According to the Brahmins, a being existing of itself hatched an egg on a flower of a lotus that was floating on the waters, and out of this egg came the world: if they were asked whence came this this egg, they would, no doubt, answer, that the Supreme Being had laid it; therefore the world has been created. In the opinion of the Boudhists, there has been no creation: MAHA BRAHMA, all the Sakreia, and Brahmes, have existed from all time, and fo have the worlds, the gods, the human race, and all

the animated beings.

THEY do not believe in the history of the egg; and though they hold the flower of lotus in respect, it is for a very different reason from the Brahmins. According to the latter, animated nature is subject to perpetual transmigration. The soul, given to all animals, departs from the body of one to enter that of another, and so on ad infinitum. The Boudhists believe that the foul exists from all time; that they are to transmigrate in the course of a time infinitely long, to be determined by their good or bad behaviour, and then cease to exist. The end of the foul is called, in Singalese, Nivani; and, I am told, in Sanscrit, Nirgwani. This is the passive happiness to which all the Boudhists look up. A criminal, that was lately hanged at Point de Galle, declared he was happy to die, as he would then become Nivani. But in this he shewed his ignorance of his religion, as he could not become Nivani till he first had been one of the Boudhous. The Brahmins calculate the antiquity of the world beyond what can be conceived by the most extravagant mind; but these calculations are supported by astronomical periods ingeniously combined together. world never was created in the opinion of the Boudhists, their circulations only relate to the immense number of transmigrations of Boudaou, from the time he first thought of becoming Boudhou, till that when he became Nivani; and this period they compute at an unit followed by fixty-three Zeros, being the refult of some combinations so intricate, that

that it may be easily imagined that very few of their wise men understand them. There are traces, however, of the Brahmin calculations to be found in those of the Boudhists. The Brahmins and Boudhists are equally bigoted and extravagant, with this difference, that in the former religion are found very deep ideas of altronomy, in the latter none. I have till now searched in vain for an instructive work in Singalese relative to the heavenly bodies, and have only found uninteresting speculations on the influence of the stars on the assairs of the world. The Brahmins respect fire, the Boudhists do not. The former eat of no animal; and the latter are restricted only to the not partaking of the slesh of nine, of which the ox is the principal.

I AM rather of opinion, upon a comparison of the two religions, that that of Boudhou is the more ancient, for the following reasons. The religion of Boudhou having extended itself in very remote times, through every part of India, was in many respects monstrous and unformed. An uncreated world, and mortal fouls, are ideas to be held only in an infant state of society, and as society advances fuch ideas must vanish. A fortiori, they cannot be established in opposition to a religion already prevailing in a country, the fundamental articles of which are the creation of the world, and the immortality of the foul. Ideas in opposition to all religion cannot gain ground, at least cannot make head, when there is already an established faith; whence it is fair to infer, that if Boudhism could not have established itself among the Brahmins, and if it has been established in their country, that it muil be the more ancient of the two.

In looking into the Singalese books, we find several striking resemblances between their astronomical system and that of the Bramins: for instance,

stance, we see the number 432, followed by any number (no matter how great) of zeros, which, among the Indians, is the result of certain combinations in the movement of the heavenly bodies; combinations which agree almost exactly with the calculations founded on Newton's fystem. number 432, among the Boudhists, is no longer the refult of altronomical combinations, but of arithmetical ones, arranged expressly to obtain it. Boudhists have only a mechanical knowledge of it, and generally attach fixty zeros to it; whereas the Bramins put but three or four. Had the former received it from the latter, they would have either kept it entirely, or changed it entirely in its mysticonumeric details, fo that the number 432 would either have been kept in its original purity, or entirely loft: but if, on the contrary, they transmitted the science to the Bramins, as in the unfortunate wars which they must have suffered in the reformation by the Bramins, they were driven from their country; and their effects, books, observatories, and astronomical tables, were lost; they could preserve only a loose remembrance of their former science; for they were obliged to wander a long time before they could unite in a body either on Ceylon or in Siam. is it not evident that the Boudhists were possessed of astronomy before the Bramins; and as both religion and astronomy are united, is it not probable that the religion of the Boudhists is the more ancient? ascertained that Zoroaster is not very ancient: it is faid that a council was held on the subject of his principles, and that the refult was an adherence to their belief in the immortality of the foul: therefore, ZOROASTER must have established something, perhaps the adoring of fire, or fomewhat of that kind at present used by the Parfees of Bombay and Surat. The Bramins do not adore, but they respect tire, and Vol. VII. D d

keep some constantly lighted in their houses, as well as in their temples. The Boudhists pay no kind of regard to it, because nothing of the kind was thought of when their religion was formed. The Boudhists eat animals; the Bramins do not. If it should be held, that reforms tend to the perfection of religion. to decide on the question of priority of age on that ground, it should be ascertained whether it be better to eat a partridge than a potatoe, which being a matter of taste, cannot be easily decided. But there is a more direct way of coming to a conclusion on this subject. All reformers attempt to throw a slur on the individuals professing the religion they wish to reform: now if the Boudhists had been the reformers, they could not have reproved the Bramins for eating rice, as they eat it themselves; nor for eating rice only; for when the religion allows eating both meat and rice, it is in every person's choice whether he will eat only one of these. But if, on the contrary, the Bramins had been the reformers, they could throw blame on the Boudhists, by prohibiting meat to themselves: these reasons make me believe that the religion of the Bramins is not so ancient as that of the Boudhists, and that MENU was the reformer. But that is a question of no importance to what I have to fay further.

According to all the old Singalese authors, particularly Nimi Giateke*, and the Boudhou Gunukatavet, Boudhou transmigrated during sour asankes, and one hundred thousand mahakalpes of years, from the time he took the resolution to become Boudhou, till that when he was born for the last time, according to some; or, as others will have it, till he became Nivani. To form an idea of this period.

^{*} An incarnation of Boudhou, under the name of king Nimi-+ History of the Achievements of Boudhou.

riod, the meaning of the words afanke and mahakalpe must be explained. There are two ways of explaining mahakalpe: the first supposes a cubic stone of nine cubits on each side: a goddess of great beauty, dressed in robes of the finest muslin, passes once in every thousand years near this stone, at each time the zephyr gently blowing the muslin on it, till in this way it is worn down to the fize of a grain of mustard: the space of time necessary for this is called antakalpe; eighty antakalpes make one mahakalpe. According to the second way of explaining the term, it is said that the earth increases seven yoduns in one antakalpe; but a thousand years only increase it the thickness of one finger, in the opinion of the Boudhists. It then remains to be seen, how many fingers there are in one yodun. The calculation is as follows:

 12 fingers
 make
 1 viet.

 2 viets
 1 riene, or cubit.

 7 rienés
 1 jaté.

 20 jates
 1 ilbe.

 80 ilbes
 1 gaoué.

4 gaoues . . . 1 yodun.—About 14 English miles. One yodun is consequently 1075200 fingers; 7 yoduns, 7526400 fingers, which, multiplied by 1000, the number of years makes 7526400000, the amount of an antakalpe, which, multiplied by 80, produces 602112000000 years, or one mahakalpe. The first computation, involving in it a calculation beyond the power of the human imagination to reach, leaves us nothing to say on the subject, except to express our total disbelies of it. The second is at least intelligible, and, it will be seen, bears a smaller proportion to an asanke, than a second does to a thousand centuries. The asanke is a number explained in three verses by an ancient author; these three verses are composed of the following words.

words, each having a nu	mer	ical	n	near	ning	—Satan,
Sahajan, Lackhan, or Laks						
Satan . fignifies	· .			1	.00	
Sahajan	•	•	•	10	000	
Lakhan				0,0	000	
Naouthan	•		100	0,0	000	
Cathi	•	100	00	000	000	
Pakethi 10000000000						
Cothi Pakothi 100	000	000	00	000	000	
Cothi Pakothi Na						zeros.
Nina Outhan .	•	•		•	21	do.
Hakoheni	•	•	•	•	24	do.
Bindhou	•	•		•	27	do.
Aboudhou	•	•	•	•	30	do.
Nina Boudhan .	•	•	•	•	33	do.
∧bahan	•	•	•	•	36	do.
Λ bebhan	•	•	•	•	39	do.
Athethan	•	•	•	•	42	do
Soghandi	•	•	•	•	45	do.
Kowpellan	•	•		•	48	do.
Komodan		•	•	•		do.
Pomederikan .	-		•	•	54	do.
Padowonan	•	•	•	•	57	do.
Mahakatta	•	•	•	•	60	do.
Sanke, or Asanke	•	`•		•	63	do.

ONE fanke, or asanke is, therefore, a number of years amounting to an unit with fixty-three zeros after it. I suspect that there is an error in the sour first numbers; though all those whom I have consulted, have assured me there is not. This is to be lamented; for had the account commenced with 1, the second line been 1000, the third 1,000,000, &c. and so on, and that the second were added to the first, the third to the two preceding ones, the sourth to the three, and so on, it would produce a sine magical square, of the same description as that displayed by the wise men of Siam, and which a samous astronomer,

astronomer, Mons. De Cassini, has not thought unworthy of employing his time in calculating. is worthy of remark, that the afanke is denominated. by fixty-four cyphers. For if this number be used to divide a mahakalpe, 60211200000, the quotient is 940800000, which last number can be equally divided by 64, by 4, by 80, by 32, all remarkable numbers in the mysterious calculations of the Boudhists. the numbers of antakalpes, 80, be multiplied by the number of Boudhous, 5, it will give 400; and if 64, the number of cyphers in an afanke, be multiplied by 5, it will give 320; these two numbers, added together, make the quotient of 432000, by 600, a period famous among the Chaldeans as well as the Indians, 432000 representing the Kali of the Bramins. It is certainly not enough that this number fhould be produced by means of certain divisors and. multiplicators; but it must be proved that these numbers are particularly marked in their religion. The number 5 stands for the five Boudhous, of whom one is yet to come. The number 4 represents the four Bounnous that have already appeared, and also the four asankes of transmigrations of GAUTEME. the fourth Boudhou: 80 is the number of years of the last life of the same Boudhou; for, according to the most authentic works, he was,

Kumareïa (Prince) during . 16 years. King during 13 do. Pilgrim during Boudhou during . . . 45 do.

Total . . 80

THIRTY-Two represents the number of his great. qualities, as well as of his middling ones, which, added together, amount to 64, the number of cyphers of the afanke. In fine, to be short, we shall only observe, that four afankes, 100,000 mahakalpes, and 32 great qualities of Boudhou, compose myki-Dd3 cally,

cally, if not arithmetically, the Kali of the Brahmins of 432,000 years. We shall have occasion hereafter to remark the coincidence in the calculations of the Boudhists with those of the Brahmins. The Boudhists of Ceylon are the descendants of the Boudhists of the continent of Asia, who emigrated at the revolution effected by the Brahmins. Having lost their astronomical tables, they have attempted, by a variety of forced, and often unintelligible, calculations, to produce the numbers resulting from the astronomical experiments of their ancestors; as they have themselves preserved nothing of the science, except these numbers.

COSMOGONY.

THE Boudhists imagine that the world is composed of an infinite number of worlds, resembling one another. In the centre of these lies a stone. called Maha Meru Pargwette, (Pargwette figni-fies a stone in the Pali language,) sixty-eight thoufand yoduns in height, and ten thousand in circum. ference, making a hundred and forty thousand English miles. SAKREÏA, the King and God, lives at the top. Around this stone lies another, called Yougandere Pargwette, one half the height of the former. The space between these stones is filled with water, and is termed Sidhante Sagre, meaning the coldest water. Yougandere is the seat of the stars, the planets, and all the bodies, whether luminous or not, which we call celestial: around Yougandere is I//edare Pagwette, where lives a bird called Gourolass, 150 yoduns in height: and next to it lies Karvike Pargwette, an uninhabited stone. Next to the last mentioned place is Soudossene Pargwette.

wette, a similar one: next to that Vineteke; and then Assucharu. The space between all these stones is filled with the coldest water, Sidhante Tchiakrevatte Pargwette, or Sackwelle Gale, furrounds a vast space inclosing Affuekaru. The circumference of Sakwelle Gale is 3,610,350 yoduns, and its diameter 1,203,400, uninhabited, is all of solid stone. Each of these Pargwettes is only half as high as that which it furrounds; fo that Assura is one 128th part of the height of Maha Meru, and Tchiakrevatte Pargwette one 256th part. Assurand Tchiakrevatte are four countries. called Maha Dwipes, (Dwipe signifies island,) placed at the four cardinal points: Pourgwevidehe at the west, Giambu at the north, Aprigodani at the east, and Uturu Kurudiveine at the south. Pourgwevidehe is in the form of a half moon, and is inhabited by people whose faces are shaped like a half moon. It is feven thousand yoduns in circumference, and is furrounded by 500 islands, each of them one hundred yoduns in circuit. Giambu is the earth we inhabit. It is of a triangular form, and is divided into two parts; that in which men immediately live is seven thousand yoduns in circuit; and the other, in which spirits anly exist, is about three thousand. The elephants of the first class, which are 1,000,000,000 times stronger than those of the tenth, live also in this place, which is called Himale Vani. It is besides the savourite residence of Visu-NU, of ISWARE, of * NATHE, and several other great gods, who are there for the protection of the earth. It is furrounded by five hundred small islands. The small part, Himalé Vani, is of the fame shape as the whole together, being triangular; the other part is a trapezium. They have all toge-ther 10,000 yoduns in circumference. As the triangle Himalé Vani is three thouland yoduns, the Trapezium must Dd4

The Nats are not known here, there is only a god called NATHE.

mist be about nine thousand; but the Singalese b. oks make it but seven thousand, which cannot be the case, geometrically, even supposing a triangle carried to its extreme length. But arithmetically, seven and three are ten, which is all that is necessary to satisfy the Boudhists of the present day. The inhabitants of * Giambu, our earth, have a triangular head, which, however paradoxical it may appear, is clearly proved by the learned Singalese to be the case, by lines which they trace on their own faces. Giambu is situated to the north of the system; around it are five hundred islands, one of which, Lanke, is the Island of Ceylon. This island guarded by four great gods; before, by VISHNU; behind, on Adam's Peak, by SAMAN: RANDE KOU-MAREA, Or KATREGAM, is on the right; and Ave-NAIKE on the left. The fore part, according to the Singalese, is De-undere; the hind part Adam's Peak: on the right lies the Pagoda of KATREGAM, and on the left Putaland. VISHNU has placed them thus. Apregodami is a country of a round shape, inhabited by men with round faces like the full moon, and by spirits of a particular description, that are to be found no where else. It is situated in the east, is seven thousand yoduns in circumference, with five hundred islands around it. Uturukuru-diveine is in the south, of a square form; its inhabitants have square faces, they live there five hundred years, and there are five hundred little islands round it. As we have one day the prospect of being in one or other of these countries, the ladies, who may be shocked at the idea of having triangular faces, have at least the consolation to be able to choose in their next transmigration, betwixt square faces, full moons, or half moons.

THE system of the world, or of the parts composing the world, which we have just described, is called Sakwelle. On the Maha Meru Pargwette

are

^{*} Giambu Dwipe is as Zabudiba at Ava. Giambu is a tree, (Eugenia.)

are four itones; the first between the north-east and north-west; the sécond between the north-east and fouth-east; the third between the fouth-east and fouth-west; the fourth between the fouth-west and north-west. The first stone is green, and reslects a green colour over the whole of that part of the Sakwelle which is opposite to it; even the inhabitants are green: we are these inhabitants. Our not perceiving this, is to be attributed to a defect in the organs of our fight; but holy persons, virtuous souls, see us as we really are. The second stone is red, and so is the corresponding space around it. The third stone is yellow, the colour of gold, and fo is the space about it. The fourth is the colour of filver, as is its corresponding space. The sun that illumines Yougandere travels round its habitation: when it gives light to the north, the fouth is in obscurity, and vice versa. It will have been observed that there are eight Pargwettes, in the same manner that we should have eight planets, had not one been suppressed. Our Sakwelle appears to be divided into separate parts by the waters that are between the Pargwettes; but they all, though in different parts, unite themselves at their base. There is an infinite number of Sakwelles that touch one another by the points of their circumference. They are all of the same fize. On account of their round space, there must be empty spaces between them, which form spherical triangles. These triangles are cold hells, called Lokonan, Tariké, Naraké. The hells that are hot, lie under the earth we inhabit, and are termed Avitchi Maha Naraké. There are thirty-fix great hells, or Maha Naraké.

THE heavens are divided into three classes, the Kamelokes, the Brahmelokes, and the Arupelokes; amounting in all to twenty-fix, and are placed one, above the other.

1. Tchattourmaharagikeié, which is 42000 yoduns in height, counting from its base to the top of Mahameru Pargwette.

2. Taoutifeeie, or Tretrinsak; this heaven is governed by SAKREIA.

3. Tamé, governed by Sulamename. > Kamelokes.

4. Santhoupité, governed by Tos-

5. Nermane Jattie, governed by SOUNERMITTE.

6. Parenermitté, governed by WA-SAWARTIE.

7. Brahmaparissetie.

8. Brahmaparoussittie.

9. Brahmekaiké.

10. Waredabeie.

11. (That name is forgotten in the Singalese manuscript.)

12. Abassareïé.

13. Paretchissoubeié.

14. Apemene Soubeié.

15. Soubekirne Soubeié.

16. Vehapeleié.

17. Assansateïć.

18. Aviheïé.

19. Attapcié.

20. Soudaffeié.

21. Soudassieié.

22. Aghenishtakeić.

23. Akassenan tchiateneié.

24. Vignanantchia.

25. Aghintchiniie.

26. Nenessanjagnianan

Brahmeloke:.

Aroupelokes.

When the Mahakalpe ends, that is, when the system of the worlds is overturned, and that all is in disorder, the heavens described by the numbers 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, are in a state of conslagration. Those numbered 13, 14, 15, 16, are laid waste by violent winds; and those numbered 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, are inundated. The heavens, called the Aroupelokes, are of a very extraordinary description; there are many living bodies without souls, or the soul is not the life; and there are souls without bodies, and yet are not spirits, besides several other things equally curious. As each of us may hope to see this when we transmigrate, I shall not give a further detail of it.

THEOGONY.

There are three kinds of Boudhous, the Laoutouras, the Passes, and the Arihats. There is nothing in the world superior to the Laoutouras. One of these is constantly in a Mahakalpe. If there be one, the Mahakalpe is called Sarakalpe; two, Mandakalpe; three, Warakalpe; four, Saramandekalpe; five, Mahabadre-kalpe. We are in this last, because it bears five Boudhous: four have already ended, having become Nivani. The fifth will finish with the present Mahakalpe. The first of these five

*Sir W. Jones, in his Chronology of the Hindoos, vol. 2d of the Asiatic Researches, gives the names of seven Rishis, or holy persons, followers of Valvaswata, Son of the Sun. Their names are Casyapa, Afri, Vasishtha, Viswamitra, Galtama, Jamadigny, and Biaradwaja. Among these seven names are to be found two of the five Boldhous, Kassiape and Galteme. I think that the name of Maitri is corrupted into the word Wisivamitra. In the same treatise there is great mention made of Boldhou under the name of Boldha, whom Bagawatamut supposes to be of a colour between white and red. The author of the Amaracosha makes him to be son of Maya: it is said farther on, that he is the son of the moon, a male deity, and that he married Ila, daughter of Menu. From what is said in the Sanscrit books about Boldhou. I conclude that the Brahmins made his history intricate, in ergic to destroy the remembrance of him.

five Boudhous was called KAROOSANDE; the fecond Konagame; the third Cassiape; the fourth GAUTEME; he by whose laws the world is governed, and will be governed for 2657 years to come, from the 1st of May 1801 of the Christian era. It is 2344 years fince Boudhou became Nivani. This era is called Boudhouvarouse. The fifth, the Boudhou to come, will be called MAITRI. He is actually in the heaven Santhoupitie. There has been a Laoutouras Boudhou, named DIPAN-KERE, who has done incredible things: he lived in a very remote Mahakalpe. Between him and GAU-TEME there were twenty-two Laoutouras. The Passe Boudhous are very numerous; but none have ever existed in a Mahakalpe which has produced a Laoutoure.

THE Arihats are as numerous as the preceding ones; many of them were promoted by GAUTEME to be his guard, but they have all become Nivani. The last survivor of these inhabited the Wanny, the northern part of Ceylon, before he became Arihat. The Laoutouras owe their becoming Bouphous to their virtues. They transmigrated an infinite number of years before they obtained it. They were all animals, men, and even spirits or gods. Among these gods are all the Brahmes, and even MAHA BRAHMA himself. But in the spiritual hierarchy they are all inferior to the Boudhous. The state of a Boudhou is that to which every being should aspire; because, to become Nivani, one must first be a Boudhou of one of the three forts. The violent propensity to become Nivani, proceeds from a dread that, in one of their infinite number of transmigrations, they may assume the shape and character of an uncleanly animal, or an inferior devil. MAHA BRAHMA is a god who has become fuch, after many transmigrations, and who is destined for the state of BOUDHOU; in the mean time, he is superior to all the Brahmes. There can be but one MAHA BRAHMA

Brahma in the space of two Kalpés and a half; the present was servant to GAUTEME, and held the harafol over his head. SAKREÏA is nearly of the same kind of gods as the Brahmes, but he is superior to MAHA BRAHMA. There have been many SAKREÏAS, though never more than one at a time; his residence is on the central stone of our system of worlds, MAHA MERU PARGWETTE; he is always occupied in doing good: the books are filled with accounts of his functions. When a man, perfectly virtuous, is afflicted with physical or moral pain, this good king knows of it by a shock which he feels on this throne; he instantly approaches the unfortunate person, who is relieved on the spot, without seeing his benefactor. Four gods watch round his pargwette incessantly, each of whom has an army of beings subordinate to them, though not constantly with their masters. The first, Virupakshe, who commands an army of fnakes; the second, DERTERATCHTRE, the chief of a whole race of Gouroulas, who are seven hundred yoduns in height, and inhabit, as we have faid before, Isledare Pargwette: the third, FAIFREVENNE, who commands the devils: the fourth, VIVUDE, chief of the gigantic spirits, called Rumbandé. Under the stone of SAKREÏA lives a devil, called Assure', who watches the moment when the posts are not guarded, to attack SAKREÏA. But the four Gods are immediately informed of it by means of their divine science, and the devil is instantly hurled back into his dungeen.

But to return to Gauteme Bhoudhou; he is generally called Saman Gauteme Bhoudhou Vahanse; the Lord Saint Gauteme Boudhou. It has been justly observed, that the Samoncodum of the people of Siam is the same as the Boudhou of the Singalese: but I do not know that the analogy in the names has as yet been observed. We see now that Samono and Saman resemble each other; and that Codom can be easily taken for Gauteme. Boudhou.

Boudhou, in one of his three voyages to Lankadwipe, the island of Ceylon, left on the top of Jaman ale Sripade, Adam's Peak, the print of one of his. feet; but though I have been at great pains to find it out. I have not as yet been able to ascertain whether it was his right or his left foot; and I am convinced that it must be, universally, a matter of doubt; for all the feet of Boudhou that I have feen in the temples are fo awkwardly made, that there is no diffinguishing the little toe from the great one. There is also a print of Boudhou's foot at Siam; but from the accounts of travellers, it is equally uncertain whether it is his right or his left: it suffices to know, that it is the mark of Boudhou. This not being doubted by any of the Singalese, the very good Christians excepted, to whom the Portuguese priests have clearly proved that this is the mark of ADAM's foot. The Boudhists of Ceylon, however, discredit the account of Boudhou having stridden from Siam to Ceylon, having one of his feet at each of these places at the same time. As Boudhou was but eighteen cubits high, it is a thing impossible according to their own tenets.

GAUTEME BOUDHOU was the fon of a king of GIAMBU DWIPE, called SOUDODENE MAHA RACIA. whose kingdom was one of those seven large stones that I have not been able to learn the names of; his mother was called MAYA, or rather Maha MAYA. He was there known under the name of Prince SIDHARTE: he had a fon by his wife JASSODERA DEVI, who was called RAHOULE, and who fucceeded to the throne on the death of his father. Having in vain attempted, during four afankes, more than a hundred thousand mahakalpes, to become Boudhou, he at last made himself a pilgrim. At the end of fix years pilgrimage, an account of which is given in a large volume, he became Bouphou; in fortyfive years after, Nivani; having established an order of things in this Mahakalpe, which is to last for

for five thousand years; after which there will be several changes in the present system; long wars, and a successive diminution in the lives of men, till they are reduced fo low as not to continue beyond five years; and every one will commit, during this short space of time, unheard-of crimes. A terrible rain will sweep from the face of the earth, all except a imall number of good people, who will receive timely notice of the evil, and will avoid it. All the wicked, after being drowned, will be changed into beafts, till at length MAITRI BOUDHOU will appear, and will establish a new order of things: he is now alive for the last time but one, and inhabits one of the superior heavens. It is known that he will be born for the last time in the kingdom of Katumati. His father will be Sougramane'; his mother, BRAHME' VETI-DEVI; his wife, CHANDRE MOUKHI, (MOON Face;) and his son, Brahme Wardene Maitri, will be 88 cubits in height, and be always furrounded by 100,000 Rahatans, a species of spirits not very remarkable in the celestial hierarchy, though tolerably powerful. It will appear from what I have faid, that the present Mahakalpe will end in five thousand years. to commence from the day that Boudhou became Nivani; that a kind of Chaos will succeed, and will continue till the appearance of MAITRI BOUDHOU. It is flated in some of the books, that the Mahakalpe will end with MAITRI. For my part, I dare not decide a question of so much importance, which might one day give rife to wars, if the Friells of Boudhou disputed; but luckily their views are limited to receiving peaceably the alms of charitable persons, and of covering their Idol every day with fresh flowers.

THE HELLS.

I have brought the reader to the end of Kalpé; but it is not fair that he should arrive there without first passing through the hells. Being in them, we shall

shall remain but a short time, as the diabolical system of the Singalese is so complicated that a long nar-

rative would only difgust the reader.

THE Hells are places of transmigration for the fouls of those who have deserved punishment, and they transmigrate into different persons, according to the weight of their offences. Wherever one may be in transmigrating, he is liable to be a devil, which is certainly a punishment; for though there is power, there is also misery attached to the state of a devil. The Preteio devils, for instance, which are the most numerous, are wretched beings, who, though conflantly hungry, have not any thing to eat; and being always about us, are but too happy if we afford them food by spitting or blowing our noses. They are the only devils who do us no harm. All the others find a pleasure in rendering us unhappy, by causing our illnesses. This has led to the use of Bales, which are, however, prohibited by Boudhou; we shall speak of them hereafter. ISVARA and VAISSEVENE, two powerful gods, keep all the devils subordinate to them in as much order as possible, but they are not always in time to prevent the effects of their malice.

CHRONOLOGY.

WE have already given the opinions of the Boudhists about the antiquity of the world, together with their truly wonderful chronological calculations. We shall hereaster give an extract from the book of RAGIA PASKEMOODILLIAR, chief of the cast of Saleas, in which there are curious details on this subject. At present we shall touch on a chronology that approaches somewhat nearer to our understanding. We shall not speak of the history of Boynhou, a part of which is contained in 550 volumes, each relating to the history of one transmigration only. We intend to give a copy of some of the paintings on the walls of the pagodas, with their explanation. It is, however, at present, sufficient to establish, that on the 1st of May, 1801, there will have been 2344 years fince Boudhou became Nivani: but not as some ignorant Singalese state, fince he was born for the last time. Boudhou knew (from his great knowledge) that the descendant of a Lion would attempt the conquest of Ceylon. As there were then seven hundred devils remaining, who had escaped destruction when Boudhou made great havoc among them in one of his journeys through the Island, he thought proper to avail himself of the destiny of this hero, in order to destroy these 700 de-He accordingly ordered Vishnou to afford him every affistance towards the success of his project. Boudhou became Nivani; and seven days after, VIGE KUMAREIA, the hero, departed, and arrived at Ceylon with 700 giants, which VISHNOU had procured for him, and a fanctified girdle, and a species of holy water, which SARREIA had made him a present of. The following is the genealogy of VIGE KUMAREIA. VAGOORAGIA, the husband of his grandmother, was a descendant from the Sun, king of Vagouratté, and father of a girl who had a connection with a furious Lion, the scourge of the country. This connection produced SINHEBAHOO Ku-MAREIA. (SINHE means Lion.) VAGOO was never fufficiently powerful to destroy this Lion. He ordered Sinhebahoo (the only one in his kingdom fufficiently strong to fight with this Lion) to attack SINHEBAHOO, after repeated menaces from VAGOORAGIA, at length determined to enter the lifts with the Lion, his father, attacked and killed him. In confequence of this, he acquired a title to the crown of Vacoo, and on the death of Vacoo, obtained it, and added to it that of LATESINHE VIGE KUMAREIA, who, we have already faid, debarked on Ceylon, and was his fon. He lauded at Tamme in the Wanney, and lay down to relt with his 700 giante E e Vol. VII.

giants under a * Bogaha tree, which sheltered them all. There was at that time in Ceylon a female devil, who had three breafts, and who knew when one of those fell, it would be the fign of a powerful stranger having arrived in the Island, who would marry her. This breaft fell: fhe immediately difguised herself as a bitch, and went in quest of the stranger. Having found him, she fmelt his feet, and retired. Vice judged, from feeing the bitch, that there must be inhabitants at no great distance. He fent his giants to reconnoitre: thefe, misled by the bitch, whom they followed, found themselves fuddenly on the borders of a lake, into which they were all plunged. Vice having waited their return in vain for a long time, suspected they had met with a misfortune, and marched forward in expectation of hearing of them. He arrived also on the borders of the lake, where he found a beautiful woman, called KUVENI. This was the same devil he had seen disguised as a bitch. He suspecting that she had hid his giants, without hesitating, seized her by the hair, and threatened her with the most dreadful vengeance if she did not deliver them up to him. She consented on condition that VIGE would marry her. He not having a woman at the time with him, and fhe being beautiful, agreed, and took the oath accordingly. At this instant the giants sprung out of the waters in the same state as they had entered them. Kuveni then informed him, that all the devils of the Island inhabited two villages near the lake, and that she would enable him to destroy them all, if he pleased. Vice immediately accepted the proposal. Kuveni changed herself into a mare: VIGE mounted her, and darted blows on every fide wherever she brought him. This he did with so much success, that in a few hours he killed all the devils in the Island, except one. This one is still in Ceylon, and does a great deal of mischief. probably, the one that a well-known traveller (Knox)

^{*} Bogaha is a ficus, but not the banian tree.

(Knox) proves, by an irrefiftible argument, that he has heard at different times. Vigz then, finding himself master of the Island, took the title of Vigz Ragia, and the inhabitants that of Sinhale (friends of the Lion) out of compliment to Vigz. This is the origin of the word Singalese, (as we call it.) Vigz Ragia was the first of the line of kings descendants of the Sun. It has been mentioned that he was the grandson of a Lion on his father's side; but as his grandmother was a descendant of the Sun, it is sufficient reason why he should be considered of that race. Also, since his time, all the kings of Lanka Dwipe (since called Ceylon from Sinhale) have taken the title of Sons of the Sun.

Ir will appear from what we have faid, that VIGE RAGIA arrived in Ceylon on the 7th of May, 543 years before the coming of Christ. I do not know upon what authority VALENTINE states his arrival in the year 106 of Jesus Christ, 649 years after the statement made by the most authentic writers. He is in another error, when he declares him to have reigned only thirty years; the Singalese being all agreed, on the authority of the MAHAVANSE, the SASSENANVANSE, and the RAGIA VALLIE, that he reigned thirty-eight; but they vary in their accounts of the time of reigning, and the number of the following kings. I have before me seven or eight lifts of their kings, not one of which agree. The first extracted from the MAHAVANSE, the fecond from RAGIA VALLIE, the third from Sassenanvanse; the fourth and fifth are Dutch manuscripts; the fixth is VALENTINE'S; the seventh RAGIA PARSES MOO-DILLIAR of Saleas, who has attempted to reconcile the different statements of the other authors, but (as he himself allows) to no purpose. About twenty years ago, a learned priest passed several months in the archives of the king of Candia, to ascertain these and other points relative to the Island. The work he has written is much effectmed, and great re-E e 2

liance placed on its exactness; notwithstanding which. I have found out an error of one year in following his chronological calculation. I have only feen the latter part of the work. The author's name is TIBOUWAVE NAIKE OUNANSE. He gives an account of 206 kings, (exclusive of the king then on the throne,) whose aggregate reigns amount to years. But it would be necessary to see the whole of TEBOUAVE's work, before we can come to a positive conclusion on the chronology of the Island. hope foon to get possession of it. I am pretty confident it will clear up several historical as well as chronological statements: though the history of the kings anterior to RACIA SINHE, who lived 170 years ago, hardly contains more than their names. are nevertheless a few interesting facts, of an ancient date, mentioned by TEBOUAVE, such as that DIVE-NIPATISS was the first king who introduced writing in the Island. He lived in the year 222 of BOUDHOU VAROUSE, and 321 years before Jesus Christ.

KINGS. SUCCESSION TO THE THRONE.

A SINGALESE cannot be king of Ceylon; that is, every person born of a Singalese father or mother, is excluded from the throne; the reason given for this is, that no Singalese can prostrate himself before one of his own nation. The son of Singalese woman is considered as of the same country as his mother, though his father should belong to a different nation. They lie on their bellies only before kings; but as no Singalese has ever been a king, they could not prostrate themselves in that manner before a king of their nation, as he would be the first of the new race. One PATTHIEBANDARE, a descendant of kings on the sather's side, but of a Singalese mother, usurped the crown; but he was shortly after massacred.

The king may have as many women as he pleases, who are not confidered as concubines when they live in the palace; but the issue of a royal race can alone pretend to the crown. These are called Princes, Kumareia.

THE eldest son generally succeeds to the throne: but if he be disqualified on account of irreligion, bad morals, or want of understanding, the least objectionable of his brothers is made to superfede him. If the king have not male issue, one of his relations is chosen to succeed him; and if he have not these, an offer of the crown is made to some prince on the

continent professing the Bounnou religion.

The courtiers, holding the principal offices, decide, conjointly with the inhabitants of fix cantons, called Ratte Paha, all claims to the crown. They confirm or annul the nomination of the late king, and in the latter case elect another, who is generally considered as the lawful sovereign, provided the electors have followed the written laws on the subject of election, and that the sundamental conditions of being of a royal race, and of the religion of Boudhous have been adhered to.

THE clection is of course subject to be decided by intrigue. The first minister, or others, may influence the vote of the Ratapahe, and intimidate the rest.

COUNCIL of the KING. DECREES.

THE council of the king is composed of all the grandees of the court; that is to say, of two Addrages; the great Dessaves, or collectors; and the Maha Muttia, or chief secretary. The priests of the first class appear there also, when particularly invited. The decisions are not carried by plurality of votes; the king listens to his council, and then decides as he pleases. Priests can only give their opinions on the private conduct of the king, and E e 3

on subjects of religion. In cases of war or revenue, it is strictly forbidden them to utter a word. A Dutch manuscript, written about twenty or twenty-five years ago, afferts that the king cannot punish with death; but this is a mistake. He is absolute in his kingdom; and, in fact, is the only person who can condemn to death, which he can do without even passing sentence, for he can inslict it with his own hand.

RAGIA SINHE having been abandoned by fixty of his guards, at the moment he was engaged with a fierce wild boar, revenged himfelf of their cowardice, by running his lance through every one of their bodies. The Dess wes are judges in their respective provinces, but they have not the power of inflicting a punishment that may lead to the death of the delinquent. Where the offence is very weighty, the criminal is stripped of his all, and the judge appropriates it to his own use.

TEMPLES.

The temples of Boudhou are called Vihari, which fignifies a house; but its received meaning is, the house of Boudhou, in the same manner as the term Kumareia, which means fon, is only applied to the fon of a king by a princefs. These temples have no certain som, being generally built in the caves of rocks. And it depends upon the particular form of the cave, whether the statue of Fournou be standing, or fitting with its legs across, or lying down on its right side. This statue is invariably yellow, from the head to the feet. A large yellow garment covers the whole body, except his right breaft. This garment is lined with red; the only part of the lining to be seen is that which is folded, and thrown over the left shoulder. Boudhou has bracelets, like all the Indian figures; his head is naked, his hair neatly

neatly plaited from the fore to the hind part of his head, at the top of which is a flame, which, in statues of eighteen cubits, is three feet two or three inches in height. There are generally figures of some of the divinities painted on the walls of the temples; and these figures, in the richer ones, are made of earth or wood. Those of Boudhou may be made of any kind of materials. Devout people make offerings to the temple in gold, silver, brass, or even stuffs. It is an homage to the memory of Boudhou, for which a recompence is expected in this life, and not in the other.

On one fide of the Vihari there is always a monument, in the form of a cupola, placed on a moulded pedestal. This monument contains a particle of the bones of Boudhou: it is rather difficult to conceive whence all these particles have come, as his body was burned on a pile of fandal wood one hundred and fifty cubits high. This cupola is called Dageb Vahanse. Da, bone; Geb, belly; Vahanse, lord. It is clear that the word belly is here used in a metaphorical sense. Vahanse is a term applicable to every thing that creates respect. The priests live close to the Vihari. Their habitations should be humble, and covered only with leaves. This has given rise to their being called Pans-ele; house of leaves. Abuses have, however, crept in among them, and tiles are feen to their houses instead of leaves.

PRIESTS.

The priests are all dressed in yellow: their garment is large, and solded back, like that of Boundou, on the lest shoulder, leaving the right breast and shoulder uncovered. They are forbidden to marry, or to have concubines. They cannot touch meat, vegetables and eggs being their sole diet. They are not to eat after twelve o'clock, and must

be three months during the year away from their ordinary habitation. They differ in their opinions as to the cause of this regulation. It appears to me to have been made for the purpose of spreading their doctrines more generally, as they are obliged to preach whenever there is an affemblage of the faith-They live partly on the produce of the lands annexed to the temples, but more particularly by the alms they receive, in raw or boiled rice, vegetables, pastry, clarified butter, or ghee, &c. &c. They must clean out their temples twice a day, and always keep at least one lamp lighted in them. Every morning they are to spread fresh slowers on the statue or pedestal of Boudhou, and must have music both morning and evening. There are only two orders of priesthood, the novices, and the ordained: the first are called Saman Eroo Ounanse. They can be novices from their puberty, if they know how to read a little, and have fome knowledge of the precepts of their religion. Previous to their admission, they are examined, and it depends on their answers whether they gain their object. They are asked whether they are afflicted with the falling fickness, or the leprofy; if they be herma-phrodites; whether they have been born slaves; if their parents be alive, and if they have obtained their consent to embrace the priesthood; with several other questions.

At twenty years of age they can be ordained, that is, become Tirounnanse. Questions are then put to them so numerous as to fill a small book. Previous to becoming a candidate, the novice must provide himself with eight things, which are indispensably necessary towards admission. A wooden plate for his food; three different yellow garments; a stick, for no other purpose than to enable him to walk; a round san, called Watapete, to hide his sace when he speaks; a coarse sack to filter his water; and a needle to mend his garment. There is a law that makes

makes all the Tirounnanses equal in rank: but this law not having been sufficiently attended to, it has been necessary to establish chiefs among them, to inspect the temples in a certain district. These chiefs are called Naike Ounnanse. A little after, there were two inspectors-general made of all the temples in the island, they are called Mahanaike Ounnanse; they reside at Candy. At present there is but one, who enjoys a great reputation for sanstity.

MARRIAGES.

THE author of the Dutch manuscript I have already alluded to, says, that the law forbids brothers to have one woman in common; but he is deceived; there is no such law: no notice of any such custom is taken in the ancient law, and there is no modern one yet. This custom prevails very much in Candy, and, to say the least, is tolerated.

In all suits relating to marriage, this custom is considered legal, and must have resulted from the manner in which the marriage ceremony is performed in Ceylon. A whole family goes in a body to ask a girl in marriage: the more numerous the family, the greater title it has to the girl: It is the whole family that marries, consequently the children belong to the whole family, in the same way as the lands, which are never divided.

It is probable that his Excellency, the Governor, will bring about a reform in this kind of marriages, and place them on a more natural footing, by encouraging agriculture, and ordering a division of lands, for the purpole of establishing, every where, a sole proprietor. Marriages, in Ceylon, are contracted by the right thumb of the man and woman being put together, the priest throwing a little water over their thumbs, and pronouncing the words laid down by Boudhou for the occasion.

The king is married in the above way; but a shell of the fort called *Chank (Buceinus)* must be procured to pour the water from, with the aperture to the right; such shell is the principal piece in the valuables of the crown. Their religion authorizes them to have many wives; a man may have as many wives and concubines as he can maintain.

WHERE a young man and woman are well difposed to marry each other, the family of the man fends a friend to that of the woman, to found the intentions of the other party. In general, the girl's family receives notice of it, and accordingly gives a feast to their guest. A few days after, one of the nearest most aged relations of the young man pays a visit to the girl's family. He informs himself relative to her character and circumstances, and if he be fatisfied, proposes an alliance. To this he receives no answer; but they treat him with a much greater feast than the former, which is generally a fign of confent. The next day, a relation of the girl comes to visit the family of the young man; he receives a grand entertainment in his turn. He inquires particularly about the number of the family, their circumstances, &c. and declares, that if the young pair are fatisfied, it would be well to confent to their marriage. The young man and his family immediately go in a body to demand the girl, which is acceded to. A magician is then confulted, to fix the day and the hour. The two families then meet at the house of the girl, where a grand feast is prepared, and the house ornamented according to the custom of the cast. The magician consults his books, and holds a Clepfydra (or water-clock) in his hand. The instant the lucky hour arrives, the married couple is covered with a piece of cloth, their right thumbs are joined, filtered water is thrown over them; a cup, containing cocoa-milk, is passed feveral times over their heads, and the ceremony ends. The couple immediately rid themselves of the

makes all the Tirounnanses equal in rank: but this law not having been sufficiently attended to, it has been necessary to establish chiefs among them, to inspect the temples in a certain district. These chiefs are called Naike Ounnanse. A little after, there were two inspectors-general made of all the temples in the island, they are called Mahanaike Ounnanse; they reside at Candy. At present there is but one, who enjoys a great reputation for sanstity.

MARRIAGES.

THE author of the Dutch manuscript I have already alluded to, says, that the law forbids brothers to have one woman in common; but he is deceived; there is no such law: no notice of any such custom is taken in the ancient law, and there is no modern one yet. This custom prevails very much in Candy, and, to say the least, is tolerated.

In all suits relating to marriage, this custom is considered legal, and must have resulted from the manner in which the marriage ceremony is performed in Ceylon. A whole family goes in a body to ask a girl in marriage: the more numerous the family, the greater title it has to the girl: It is the whole family that marries, consequently the children belong to the whole family, in the same way as the lands, which are never divided.

It is probable that his Excellency, the Governor, will bring about a reform in this kind of marriages, and place them on a more natural footing, by encouraging agriculture, and ordering a division of lands, for the purpole of establishing, every where, a sole proprietor. Marriages, in Ceylon, are contracted by the right thumb of the man and woman being put together, the priest throwing a little water over their thumbs, and pronouncing the words laid down by Boudhou for the occasion.

ccs, at the will of the parties. If the husband or husbands be not satisfied with their wife, he or they return her the effects she has brought in marriage, and repudiate her. In the same manner, if the woman be discontented, she insists on withdrawing herfelf, and returns whatever she may have received in marriage. When the parties are not agreed as to the divorce, the Judge or Dessaye interferes, and generally annuls the marriage when he cannot reconcile them.

DRESS.

THE dress of the grandees of the court is not so majestic as that of the Turks or Persians, nor so elegant as that of the Indians, yet it is striking and pleafing. The hip is covered with a large coloured cloth, descending and folded in such a way before, as to prevent any obstruction to the motion of the legs; this cloth is called Pano: over this they wear a kind of petticoat of fine muslin, (called Joupeti,) with a gold border folded up in the way of the cloth. A box made of paste-board is placed round their bellies, the projection of which it increases five or fix inches. This box contains a handkerchief, watch, and other little articles. Their fervants always carry their betel, chunam, and nuts of areka. A large fash, with a gold border, ties up the whole: it is called Ottou Katchie. The upper part of the body is covered with cloth worked in gold, or variegated filk, or plain white muslin. The sleeves are always stuffed above with cotton, in order to make the higher part of the arm appear thick: this they call Otte. Over' their shoulders is a large ruff, in the Spanish fashion, which they call Maute. On their heads they wear a finall round hat, which they call Topi Raloué; it is made of patte board, and is covered with a piece of red cloth, having a gold border, and fometimes of white mullin. This drefs appears to have been partly introduced

introduced by Europeans. The ruff and coat are to be seen in many of the portraits of the 16th and 17th centuries; and the covering over their hips, resembles the large Dutch breeches of those days. They have two kinds of slippers; one made of leather, or ornamented cloth, and turns at the end; the other is a piece of wood, about the size of the soot, raised from the ground by the means of two supporters a few inches in height; near the end of it are two small curves, between which they place the great toe. They never use slippers where there is ceremony.

Those that are of an inferior rank to the first class of courtiers, only wear the lower part of the dress; it being strictly forbidden them to cover the upper part of the body. The Vellale cast has the privilege of wearing a white hat. The petty cheiefs of the other casts can wear black hats. The people of low cast cannot wear a petticoat, but simply a piece of white cloth, which is not to reach below the knees.

Their head is uncovered.

THE women of the lower orders wear a petticoat of white cloth, which paffing between their legs, is thrown over the right shoulder, and is fastened to the ligature about the waist: it has a very pretty effect. This is the dress in Candy. In that part of the island which is under the European dominion, the black chiefs wear a kind of embroidered furtout, with an immense quantity of large buttons of gold or filver The women wear a quilted vest of the very worst talle. The Singalese use a large leaf of the Talegaha tree to shelter them from the rain; it is called by Europeans talibot.* It is made to fold up like a fan. Another species of san is used in Candy: it is a leaf of the same tree; its folds are open, and form a wheel, which is fallened to a flick feven or eight feet in length. It is only used to keep off the fun. Men in place alone are entitled to the benefit

fit of it. There is another fan of the same shape, but smaller, called *Wattapetie*, which serves the same purpose as sans in Europe. The priests generally carry them.

CASTS.

THE Singalese are divided into four principal casts,

That of the Kings-RAGIA.

That of the Brahmins.

That of the Velendes.

That of the Tchouderes.

The two first casts do not exist in Ceylon. That of the Kings is divided into Tchrestri Ragia Vanse, Litchwi Ragia Vanse, Akkake Ragia Vanse.

THE Brahmins distinguish the Vedebrahmine Vanse, as persons to be solely employed in matters of religion, and in the study of abstract sciences; other Brahmins as doctors of physic; and a third class as manusacturers of silks and stuffs.

THE Velende cast is divided into Velende Vanse, and Wadighe Vanse, commonly called Tehetis. The TCHOUDERES comprise all inferior casts. White people and vedas are of no cast. But as all these are the casts of ancient and fabulous times, they can only be said at present to exist in books.

THE following is the order of casts in Candy.

First, Vellal or Goi Vanse. The Vellales were originally labourers, as will appear from the fignification of the words; vel means a marshy field, fit for the cultivation of rice; ale is desire, fancy, love. Vellale, therefore, fignifies, the attachment of people of that cast to places fit for the cultivation of rice. They were also called goi-game, from goi, labourer; and game, villages. They probably took this name when they united themselves into a small society, and

and established themselves in the same place. One would be induced to suppose that such a cast must have had its origin in very remote times; but we find no mention of it in the ancient books. This little society having increased in power and in numbers, the general term of goi-game was dropped, and every one took that of goi-vanse, meaning the lord labourer. The Goi-vanses, or Vellales, form the first cast in Candy: they alone can hold the high offices of the state. Two casts dispute the second rank, namely, the sishermen, and the Challias. The fishermen, or Karave, cannot be of much importance in Candy, as the Candians at present can only fish in the rivers of that kingdom.

THE origin of the Salé,* or Challias, is accounted for in the following manner: A certain number of Passekarea Brahmin Vahanse went to live together in a large house on the continent, to carry on a manufacture of stuffs. This house was called Salé, and increased to such a size, as at last to become a village, which gave rife to the name Salé-gamé, that was afterwards given to its inhabitants. A great number of them were invited over to the Island by three diffeient Kings, Vice Ragia, Devenipatisse, and Though at first much esteemed, they had not an opportunity of constantly exercising their talents; the consequence was, these decreased from not being sufficiently employed, their influence fell, and they became labourers, goi. In the reign of WATI-MI, they found an opportunity of distinguishing themselves in another way. The Portuguese had just arrived in the Island, and wanted men to peck the

[•] Is not this the name Exam which Ptolemy gives to the Island of Ceylon, as he does that of Yakar to the inhabitants? This cast of cinnamon peelers is settled in the southern districts of the Island, and forms the principal part of the population in the neighboul nood of Point de Galle.

the tinnamon. They proved themselves in a short time so useful to the Portuguese, who valued nothing in the Island but the cinnamon, that they received the title of Maha Badé, the great department, preserving always the name of salé without the addition of gamé. They extended over a tract of country forty or sifty leagues in length. Some time after, the termination as, was given to many casts, such as the Panneas, Hounas, &c. and in the same way, to the cast of Salé, which then becam Saléas, by corruption Tchalias. Adrian Ragia Pakse Moodilliar of Saleas, has written a very curious work on the subject of his own cast, in which several interesting accounts relative to Boudhism are also to be found. I shall give, farther on, from his book, an extract made by himself.

Next to the Saleas and Káraves, are the Jagregors. Their employment is to extract from the cocoa-tree, from the kitoul, and the talgaha, a liquor with which they make black fugar. The Hounas are lime-makers. The Navandana work in gold, filver, copper, and iron.

The Dourave, or Sourave, are those who draw the juice from the palm trees, in the same way as the Jagregors. They make of this juice Souri, or Foddya liquor, which they ferment, and then distil, by which means it becomes arrack. The Europeans call them Shandos.

THE Radave.—Washermen of the first cast. They wash for the preceding casts, but not for the following. They are obliged to hang white cloth in the houses which travellers stop at, whenever a person of importance is to pass by.

THE Kinnavas. - Winnowing-fan makers.

THE Jamale, who are to work in the iron mines. There are very few people of this cast.

THE Radeas.—Washermen of the second class.

Pereveïas

Bereveïas.—This class includes all the players on musical instruments, and those who beat the different kinds of drums.

Ollias, the dancers and the mimics. The first are obliged to be on the road when great people pass by, and accompany the palanquin, for a length of time, by their extravagant steps, which they call dancing. The mimics put on a mask of the devil RAKSEÏA, who is very formidable here, and dance with the mask on, in order to appease him.

The Padouas are carriers of every kind. The Galle gane palleas, those who are charged with cleaning the streets.

THE Rodi, or Rodias, are the last and vilest of all the casts. If one should touch a Rodias, even unintentionally, one is rendered impure. These wretches are obliged to throw themselves on the ground on their bellies whenever they see a Vellala passing, who gravely walks over them. But nature feems to have come to the relief of these unfortunate beings, by giving to them more beautiful women than to any of the other casts. But many of them are forced into the harams of the great, who have laid it down as a rule, that a Rodias woman is not impure for the men of superior casts, but only for their wives. This is the order at present of the different casts in Candy. It is, however, probable, that formerly the order of casts in this Island was not as it now is, but as it exists on the continent. It may be confidered fingular, that there is not a military cast: but the reason of it is, that all the population belonging of right to the King, every one, let his rank be what it may, is obliged to fight on receiving the King's order. By this means he has as many foldiers in time of war as he can procure arms for. This order of casts is strictly observed in Candy. But no individual suffers in the opinion of his cast. in doin; for himself any work that may be within the particular line of another cast: therefore a F f Vellale

Vellale may wash his own linen, or fish for his own table. Neither is a Vellale degraded for cultivating the ground of a man of inferior cast; in the same way as a Navandane may make a working-tool for a Rodias: for there are not two species of Vellales, nor of Navandanes. But, as there are two kinds of washermen, a Radave would think it beneath him to wash for a Bereveïas. In the part of the Island belonging to the English, there is a difference in the casts, but so confused as to make it difficult to give an exact idea of them; the precise line between them not having been drawn in this part of the Island. For the last twenty years, the Salegame, or Saleas, or Mahabade, have lost, with their privileges, the priority which their greater utility entitled them to over the Vellales. There is also another class of inhabitants, of whom many authors have spoken, without knowing any thing about them: they are called Bedas, or Vedas. The Bedas are of no cast; but they are not considered as impure, and enjoy, as a body, a certain degree of confideration. They inhabit the woods, and live up in the trees. They feed principally on the game they kill with their arrows, and have the reputation of being good archers. Their bows are remarkably difficult to draw. Their arrows have a piece of iron at the end, fix or eight inches long, and about one and a half broad. With these they can kill an elephant by striking him between his eyes, a thing very possible from the construction of the bone about that part. When a Veda wants an iron lance, or a tool, which is nearly the only thing he may stand in need of that he cannot procure for himself, he places in the night, before the door of a smith, fome honey or game, together with a model of the instrument he requires in wood or earth. In a day or two after, he returns, and finds the infrument he has demanded. This good faith, and recipincal confidence, prove, at least, that some honesty exists in a country

a country where swindling and robbery are carried to a great excess. They would consider themselves extremely criminal if they cheated a Beda, who, from his way of living, can never impose upon them. Once a year the Vedas send two deputies with honey, and other little presents, to the King. When they arrive at the gate of the palace, they send word to his Majesty that his cousins wish to see him. They are immediately introduced. They then kneel, get up, and inquire of the King, rather familiarly, about his health. The King receives them well, takes their presents, gives them others, and orders that certain marks of respect be shewn them on their retiring from the palace. These Vedas are black, like all the Singalese, notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary. They inhabit the Wanie.

DEATHS.

Ir is recommended by the laws of Bounhou, to recite fome chapters on morality near a dying man, in which the name of Boundou frequently recurs. If the dying man expire at the inflant this name is repeated, his foul is transported into one of the heavenly regions. The law ordains that the body be burnt: but this custom has not been preserved, except among the great. The people entertain an idea that the dead defile a place: they therefore get rid of the body immediately, by burning it, or carrying it to the neighbouring forest. The house in which a person may have died, is always deserted for some months, sometimes for ever. The water of the sca is the best to wash away the impurity: and where this cannot be had, they use the water of a stream, cow-dung, and curcuma. The following custom fil's one with horror, particularly as the only cause of it is idleness: When a fick man is despaired of, the fear of becoming defiled, or of being obliged Ffg

to change their habitation, induces those about him to take him into a wood, in spite of his cries and his groans, and there they leave him, perhaps, in the agonies of death. It frequently happens that men, thus lest, recover, and return to their families, without entertaining the smallest resentment towards their affassins. This atrocious custom is common in the poorer provinces of the kingdom of Candy.

MUSIC.

Music appears to have been formerly cultivated in Ceylon, and reduced into principles. There are pieces of music to be seen in regular notes, in some of the old books in the Pali tongue. The ancients had seven notes, called Sa, Ri, Ga, Me, Pa, De, Ni. The gamut was termed Septa Souere. There was no particular sign for these notes, each of them being formed of as many letters as were necessary for their pronunciation. It is very probable that this gamut answers exactly to ours, consequently this would be the way that the beginning of an old minuet, known to all the world, would be written in Singalese music; Pa ni ri pa ri sa ni dé pa, pa pa pa pa pa.

But as their music, in notes, has been almost entirely forgotten, I have not been able to discover how they used to distinguish the half tones, the crotchets, measures, &c. &c. I have heard that there are two or three persons in Candy, who still understand their music by note. But I hope yet to be able to collect something that may give an insight into the ancient music of the Singalese: it is, in all probability, the same as that of the Indians of the continent. Nothing can be more unpleasant than the Singalese airs, whether sung, or played on either kind of their guitars. Their trumpet produces the most annoying sound I ever heard; yet they are sond

of it to distraction: they consecrate it to the temples and to the King. Its name is Hoveneve. Their horn, called Kombove, is as unpleasant as the former. They have a kind of hautboy, that is not quite so insupportable as their other instruments, and which might, perhaps, in the hands of an able player, be made to give some pleasing tones; it is termed Nalavé. They have four species of drums. The first, Daoul, is long and narrow: they beat it with a curved flick, called Daoul Kadipoue, and use only their left hand to it. The Tammetam is a kind of kettle, covered with a skin on the top, and beat with an instrument called Kaddipow. The Rabani is nearly fimilar to our timbrel; but it has no bells. They flide the fingers of the right hand on it, and hold it with the left. men play on it also. They place it on the ground, and three or four together beat it in time for many hours together, without being in time. The Odikie is the best of all their drums, and is certainly capable of producing a good effect in a piece of music. is very narrow, considering its length. The two extremities of it are tied by catgut strings to the belt, on which the instrument hangs; this belt goes over the shoulder. They squeeze the drum occasionally with the left elbow, and strike it with their right hand. The pressure on the instrument, by stretching it more or less, makes it produce different tones. The Tammetam is used in the seasts of the great, and always precedes them in their journeys. It is a necessary part of the music to be played before the temple morning and evening. In fine, it is an effentially necessary instrument upon all occasions that attract the attention and consideration of the public. Rabini is more adapted for the feasts of friends: the Daoul is used at all times. But the Odikie is the instrument of the men of taste: a player on it is, confeque tly, paid more liberally than those on the Daoul Sc Tammetam. Ffg THE

THE Singalese are very fond of hearing songs. A great man (when travelling) has often one finger before and another behind his palanquin. They each in their turn fing stanzas of an indeterminate length: as it happens at times that the finger, animated by his subject, gives some verses extempore. The songs are either religious, in which case they extol the virtues of Boudhou, and other gods; or they are historical, and then they praise the virtuous actions of fome of their kings, or relate a love adventure. all cases the air of the songs is mournful. I have never heard what can be called gay music among the Singalese; and I think it would be very difficult to put any into note; for the measure is incessantly changing, and the movement remaining the same, always flow. It is what is generally called the andunié.

Abridgment of the History of the Chalias, by Adrian Ragia Pakse', a Chief of that Cast.

1st. AFTER the world had been destroyed, and plunged into obscurity, a Brahmé descended from on high, and made it shine with his bright light.

2d. A GREAT number of other Brahmés descended at the same time, and inhabited the regions of the

air, where they enjoyed perfect happiness.

ad. One of these Brahmés, wishing to know the taste of the earth, pressed it between two of his singers, and sound it possessed of the sweetest slavour. From that time he and the other Brahmins sed on it for the space of 60,000 years, till dreading that it would be entirely consumed, from the great use they made of it, they divided it equally amongst them, that each might be sure of a certain portion: but the unfortunate idea of dividing it destroyed the colicious slavour of the earth.

4th. AFTER which Chance produced a species of mushroom, called Mattika, or Jessathow, on which they lived for 15,000 years. But being determined to make an equal division of this also, they lost it. Luckily for them, another creeping plant, called Badrilata, grew up, on which they sed for 35,000 years, but which they lost for the same reason as the former ones.

5th. FORTUNE still remained true to them; for there grew up a large tree, called Kalpéworksé, of which there is an immense number in Outourowkourowdwipe. This tree gave them food for 2,200,000 years. But the old idea having crept in among them, it perished.

6th. They afterwards lived on an odoriferous grain, called Soiamgiate-el, for 35,000 years, which they lost for the same reason as their former.

7th. They then found another grain, called Sowende, which served them as food for 60,000 years,

at the end of which they were deprived of it.

8th. These different kinds of food changed their nature; and from spirits they became matter in a human shape, having bones, sless, and blood: And having imbibed wicked ideas, they became hermaphrodites, and communicated carnally with each other. The consequence was, that they lost all their

ancient glory.

of living of the others, retired into the woods. There they divided themselves into three sets. One set gave itself the name of Vedé Brahminé, and took to the study of the four sciences, called Tehadourveda. This set is employed in teaching men virtue, and instructing them in a knowledge of the heavenly doctrine. Another set took the appellation of Same Brahminé, and it interests itself about the temporal concerns of men. The last set is called Peskaré Brahminé.

miné, and manufactures gold stuffs: this is the mean-

ing of Peskaré.

10th. THEY all affembled, and reflected deeply on their ancient glory, which was so great as to have given light to the world: and they repented of the sin

which had plunged them into obscurity.

11th. They in consequence prayed together, and obtained a new light, under the name of Souria, (sun,) which is fifty yoduns in circumference. This word, literally, is firmness and wisdom. At the time Vaivasvata (son of the sun) appeared in all his beauty and happiness. * Thirty hours after, the sun set, and the light was turned into darkness. They again prayed, and obtained another luminary, called Chandria, (moon,) and which signifies reunion, and has forty-nine yoduns of circumference.

12th. Then they were obliged to labour for their bread, and they began to steal from one another. In this predicament they elected a chief, and agreed that whatever punishment he should decree, they would enforce. This chief was that splendid, beautiful, and perfect happy being, the son of the sun. They called him MAHA SAMETTE, meaning the grand or unanimous election; and they appointed him king 4,320,000 years after the descent of the Brahmés

from the aërial regions.

13th. From him have descended all the Maha Samette, the cast of kings, which has been divided into five casts equally eminent. The first, called Sourie Vansé; the second, Litché Viragie Vansé; the third, Katchieragie Vansé; the fourth, Sakeragia Vansé; the fifth, Okkakeragie Vansé. These sive casts have always filled the station of sovereigns.

14th. THE Hermaphrodites, of whom we have spoken,

^{*} The Singalese divide the nychthemeron into sixty hours; thirty for the day, and thirty for the night.

spoken, (No. 8,) produced two casts; the Valendes, who, knowing nothing of agriculture, took to trade, and are now called Tchittes; and the Vadighé, distinct from the former, but also traders. All the other Brahmés were called Tchouderés, a general term for all inferior casts.

15th. Many books, such as the Dampouvavé, the Attouvavé, and the Nekalikavé, speak of Peskaré Brahmines who were kings. The book Sedipekave, taken from the Southfethré, and the Sonnanameke, written by the king Melidow, establishes the order of casts in the following manner: Kings, Brahmines, Chittis, Grahapatis. Thirty-five Peskaré Brahmines were kings in the country of Dambedive, (the continent,) and the lands annexed to it; such as Makhande. Mahapatoonu, Kafi, Gadahare, Kourow, and Souloupatounow. Here follows the manner in which Ceylon became inhabited. Ceylon is a small island, at a little distance from Dambedivé, about one hundred yoduns in circumference. It was for many years a favage island, and was inhabited by devile A descendant of the first king of Dambedivé, MAHA-SAMETE, arrived there: He was called Vige Kou-MAREA, and was the fon of VAGOWRAGIA. This prince Vice had acted very unjustly towards his father's subjects: and his father, recollecting that BOUDHOU had foretold that his fon VIGE would be king of Ceylon, made him embark with 700 giants, and ordered them all to go in fearch of the island of Ceylon. They departed with a fair wind for the mountain Saman cle Sripade, which they perceived at a distance, and landed at Tamine in the Wany. Vice destroyed all the devils, and cultivated the lands. He then fent large prefents to the king of Paundi, whose daughter he demanded and obtained in marriage. The princess brought 700 young girls with her and fervants and artifls of every descrip-The 700 giants married the 700 girls. Vicz we ded the princess, and declared himself king. Some

Some time after, VIGE RAGIA made other presents to his father-in-law, who, in return, fent him some Peskaré Brahmines. Vice received them well. granted them lands and honours, and they employed themselves in making magnificent gold stuffs for the king and queen. He died after thirty-eight years reign. The descendants of these Peskaré Brahmines neglected the art, gave themselves up to agriculture, and lost the name of Peskaré with their talent. While the king, DEVENIPETISSE, reigned in Ceylon, the king of Dambedivé, DHARMASOUKE', sent him the holy tree, called Snemahabodhienvahanse, 100 Peskaré Brahmines, on whom he heaped riches and honours. Deveniperisse received them with attention, and granted them greater honours than they had received from DHARMASOUKE'. The Peskarés manufactured stuffs for the king; but, like their predecessors, soon lost their art, and took to agriculture. Another king of Ceylon, called VIGE SA-VAKKREMEBAHOW, (also called VATIME',) sent pre-fents to the king Holie, and obtained several from him, and several Peskaré Brahmines, to whom he gave rubies, pearls, elephants, lands, slaves, &c. The descendants of these are called Saleas Gamé. It is said in the book Saliegesoutré, that they lived in the village Saleagamé, which means the village of houses or buildings. This village was afterwards called Chelow. This place gave the name afterwards to the cast. Some Europeans shortly after arrived in Ceylon, who employed the Peskaré Brahmines, or Saleagamé, to gather cinnamon: and as this was the most valuable article in the island to the Europeans, they called the department which furnished it Mahabade. Bade fignifies tax; therefore Mahabade means great tax.

It is certain that the Saleas, at present called Challias, descend from a very high cast, and that they have always been held in great estimation; having, except in late times, been constantly exempted

empted from paying taxes, and enjoyed great honours.

ALL that we have faid is to be found in the following books.

LIST OF BOOKS.

Dirghinekaie, or Diksanghie.—An extract from the laws of Boudhou. (Pali.)

Angothrinekaie.—Another extract more copious.

(Pali.)

Saniouthnikaie.—A collection of the writings of

Boudhou. (Pali.)

Giatekeathoovavé.—A very ancient description of the transmigrations of Boudhou, divided into 550 books. (Singalese.)

Sare Sangrehe.—History of Boudhou, written by

a wife man; very much esteemed. (Singalese.)

Darma Predipikave.—Darma fignifies a collection of the laws of Boudhou. Predipikave demonstrates that the author is a doctor, (named Gouronlogomi;) it is a kind of commentary. (Sanscrit,) Pali, Singalese.

Soumanghele Vila Sininam othouvave.—An explana-

tion of the facred rejoicings. (Pali.)

Vanse Dipikave.—The candlestick of the higher casts; by a king named MILIDON.

Balavelare. - A grammar of the Pali language.

Bale, ignorant; avetare, that instruct.

Pali Nigandoo Sanné.—A Pali and Singalese dictionary. Nigandoo, dictionary; Sané, translated.

Pali Date-mangiufé.-A collection of Pali verbs.

Daté, verb; mangiuse, chest.

Pali Nigandoo .- A Pali dictionary.

Ragia Ratnakere. History of the kings of Ceylon.

Ragia, king; Ratnakere, sea.

Sarafu tti Viakarene Potte.—A Sanscrit grammar, the explanation of which is also in Sanscrit. Saraf-vatti.

444 ON THE RELIGION AND MANNERS, &c.

vatti, the goddess of science. Viakarene, grammar; Potte, book.

Pali Sabdemalave.—A collection of Pali names declined, and translated into Singalese. Sabde, name; malave, chain.

Pane Daham Potte.—Explanations of Boudhou. Pane, discourse; Daham, religion; Potte, book.

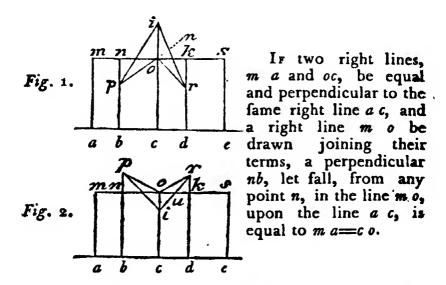
Poogia Vallie.—History of offerings made to Boun-Hou. Poogia, offerings; Vallie, a creeping plant.

XVII.

DEMONSTRATION of the 12th Axiom of the first Book of Euclid.

BY THE REV. PAUL LIMRICK.

Prop. 1. Fig. 1. 2.



Proof, n b cannot be greater that m a, nor less than it.

PRODUCE a c, till c e=a c; erect a perpendicular e s=a m, draw the right line cs, take c d=a b; erect a perpendicular dk. Now, if the figure m a c o be applied to a c e s, so that the point a may fall upon c, and the line a c on c e, the point b will fall upon d, and c upon e; and since the angles at a, b, c, d, and e, are

e, are all right angles, m a will coincide with co. n b with kd, and o'c with se, but ma=co=se by construction; therefore the point m will coincide with o, and the point o with s, therefore the line mo will coincide with os; but the line b n coincides with dk, therefore the point n will coincide with k: therefore b = dk. Now if n b be supposed greater or less than m a, take bp=am=oc=dr, take oi=pn, draw the right lines pi, po, ri, ro: now it is obvious, from the construction, that the figure p b d r i may be placed upon the figure o cam n, fo that the points p & o, b & c, d & a, r & m, and i & n, shall coincide; but the points o, n, m, are in one right line; therefore the points p, i, r, are also in one right line; therefore p i, i r, form one right line: now produce ϕ 0, and it must meet i r in some point as u; and therefore two right lines p i u, p o u would include a space, which is absurd. Therefore n b cannot be greater nor less than $m \ a$: therefore $n \ b = m \ a \ Q \ E \ D$.

Prop. 2d. Fig. 2d, 4th, 5th.

Fig. 3.

If two equal right lines a c, b d,

be perpendicular to the fame right
line a b, and a right line c d be
drawn joining their terms; 1st.

The angles a c d, b d c will be
equal; 2dly, the angles a c d, b d c b will be right angles; and 3dly, the
right line c d will be equal to a b.

DRAW the right lines a d, b c: in the right angle triangles c a b, d b a the fides containing the right angles are equal by conftruction, therefore (by 4. 1.) a d = b c, therefore the triangles a c d, b a c are mutually equilateral, therefore the angles a c d, b d c, which are opposed to the equal fides a d, b c, are equal (by 8. 1.)

From any point m, in the line c d, let fall c m d a perpendicular to the line a b:

by the 1st proposition, m n=a c =b d: therefore, by the foregoing part, n m c=a c m=b d m =n m d: n m c, n m d are right angles: consequently a c d, b d c are also right angles.

Fig. 5.

Draw the right line da; the angle a c d is a right angle by the 2d part, and therefore equal to a b c; and the fides a c, b d are equal by construction; now if a b be not equal to c d, take b m either greater

or less than a b, which shall be equal to c d; and draw the right line d m, and since a c d is a right angle, by the foregoing part, and therefore equal to a b d, and a c=b d by construction, and also d c=b m by supposition; d m will be equal to d a (4.1.) and therefore the angle dma=dam (5,1,) but dma is an obtuse angle (16, 1,) therefore two angles of a triangle would be greater than two right angles, contrary to 17, 1, of the Elements; therefore b a cannot be greater nor less than d c: c d=a b. Q E D

Prop. 3d. Fig. 6.

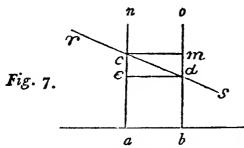
Fig. 6.

If two right lines a c,
b d, be perpendicular to
the fame right line a b;
and from any point c, in
one line, be drawn c d, perpendicular to the other;
a c=b d, and therefore c d=a b, and the angle a c d
a right angle.

Supposa

Suppose a c to be greater or less than b d, take a o=b d, and draw d o: now, fince a o=b d, b d o will be a right angle (prop. 2.) and therefore equal to b d c, which is impossible: a c cannot be greater not less than b d: a c=b d, and therefore (by the foregoing proposition) c d=a b and a c d a right angle. Q E D.

Prop. 4.



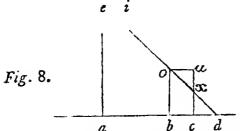
Ir two right lines, an, bo, perpendicular to the fame right line ab, be cut by a right line rs; the alternate angles will be equal; the external angle equal to

the internal remote angle on the fame fide of the cutting line; and the two internal angles, on the fame fide, equal to two right angles.

If the cutting line r s be perpendicular to one of the given lines, it will be perpendicular to the other (by the foregoing prop.) and therefore all the angles right, and confequently equal.

If the cutting line r s be not perpendicular, draw the perpendicular c m, d e; by the former proposition c m=a b=e d; also the angle m d e a right angle; by the 2d prop. ce=md: the triangles ced, emd, are mutually equilateral; and therefore (8. 1.) ecd=cdm; and consequently their complements ncd and bdc are equal; again bds=rdo=acs; again acd+bdc=mdc+bdc=to two right angles. Q E D.

Prop. 5, Fig. 8, 9, 10.



If two right lines, a e, d o, stand upon a right line a d, so that the two internal angles e a d, o d b, are less than two right

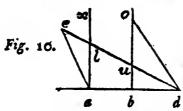
angles, the lines a e, d o, produced on the same side of a b, shall meet. N. B. This is the 12th axiom of the 1st book of Euclid.

1st. Let one of the lines, a c, be perpendicular to a d, and consequently the angle i d a acute (by supposition) from any point x, in the line d i, let fall a perpendicular xc; meeting a d in c; take xo = dx; produce cx; draw the perpendiculars ob, ou. Now in the triangles oxu, dxc, the angles at x are vertical, and those at u and c right angles, and the side ox equal to xd, : cd = ou. (26. 1.) = bc (prop. 3d.) therefore, if from the line da be taken parts equal to cd, till the whole be exhausted, and from di produced be taken the same number of parts=to dx, and right lines be drawn from the several points of divifion in di to the corresponding points of division in ad, these lines will be all perpendicular to ad, but the last of them either coincides with ac, or falls beyond it : di must meet ae.

Fig. 9. $\int_{a}^{m} e^{i}$

Is both the lines a e, d i, form acute angles with a d, erect the perpendicular a m: by the last case d i must meet a m, and therefore must first meet a e.

450 DEMONSTRATION OF THE 18TH AXION, &C.



Is the angle ead be obtuse, erect a perpendicular a x, make the angle edo = eax, then x ad + odi = ead: a x ad + odi + adi are less than two right an-

gles: therefore o d a is acute, and therefore i d a still more acute, therefore d i must meet a x (by the 1st case) suppose in i, take du—ai, let fall a perpendicular ub, produce u b till it meet d o (1st case) in o, take a e—d o, and draw the right line i e: now in the triangles eai and odu, ea—do, and ai—du by construction; and these sides contain equal angles, eai—odu, therefore (4.1) aie—duo—(proposition 4) xid: aie—aid are equal to two right angles,: d i and i e are one right line,: d u and a e meet in e. Q E D.

XIX.

An Account of the BAZEEGURS, a Sect commonly denominated NUTS.*

BY CAPTAIN DAVID RICHARDSON.

A PERUSAL of Grellman's Differtation on the Gipfies of Europe, in which this country is confidered as having given birth to that wandering race, induced me to commence an inquiry into the manners of a people in Hindoostan denominated Nuts. whose mode of life seemed somewhat to assimilate with his description. It is my intention, should this, my first endeavour, meet with approbation, to pursue this line of investigation still farther; and, from time to time, I may be enabled to bring forward short sketches of the tribes within the Company's Provinces, who, being in other respects too infignificant for the pages of the historian, may have hitherto been passed over unnoticed, although many of their usages and ceremonies may still merit a detail, as detached facts in the general history of mankind. Strictly speaking, these people might be denominated players or attors, from their Persian name of Bazee-gur, which may be literally rendered a juggler, or tricker: but the appellation of Nut extends to several tribes, and properly belongs to many more; each party having branched out, and formed itself, into a distinct sect, agreeably to the habits of life, or modes of subfistence, which necessity, and local circumstances, may have induced them to adopt as their own peculiar calling or art.

The Bazeegurs are subdivided into seven casts, viz. the Charee, Ath bhyeea, Bynsa, Purbuttee, Kal-koor, Dorkinee, and Gungwar: but the difference Gg 2 seems

^{*} For the following, and other explanatory notes, I am indebted to the kindness of a friend.

feems only in name, for they live together, and intermarry as one people: they fay they are descended from four brothers of the same family.

They profess to be Moofulmans;* that is, they undergo circumcision; and at their weddings and burials, a Qasee and Moosla attend to read the service: thus far, and no farther, are they Moosulmans. Of the Prophet they seem to have little knowledge; and though in the creed which some of them can indistinctly recollect, they repeat his titles, yet, when questioned on the subject, they can give no further account of him, than that he was a Saint, or Peer. They acknowledge a God, and in all their hopes and sears address him, except when such address might be supposed to interfere in Tansyn's department, a famous musician, who slourished, I believe, in the time of Ukbur, and whom they consider as their tutelary

A person well versed in the Eastern language, will often be able to tell the nation to which any professional man really belongs, from the name he assumes as such. When a Sonar, or goldsmith, is termed Zurgur, or Sadu-kar, he will in general be a Moosulman; and in this way we meet with Joolaha, Mochee Durzee, Hujam, Lissukhan, Moosuwwir, Mee,anjee, instead of the Hinduwee words Tantee, Chumar, Soojee, Nagee, Kut,huk, Pande, Chitera, for a Weaver, Shoemaker, Taylor, Barber, Story-teller, Schoolmaster, and Painter, in succession. The word Hulalkhor, which is applied to a Sweeper, generally indicates the same discrimination of a Moosulman, as Bhungee does to a Hindoo; a truth which the two nations acknowledge with great reluctance. The reason is obviously founded on that pride of cast which they both support, often at our expence. In this instance they will stoutly deny the fact stated here, unless the inquirer knows enough of the language to call a Hulalkhor before them, if Mogsulmans, and desire him to repeat his creed, &c. In this and the other duties of Islamism, they are no doubt often so defective, that we cannot venture to affirm they are orthodox Moohummudans, any more than we can vouch for the B,hungees being perfect Hindoos: all we dare in candour alledge, being, that these people respectively lean, in their belief, worship, and manners, much more to the one religion than the other, as the text will elucidate in the Nuts' history before us. It is a curious enough circumstance, that there are certain employments here engrossed almost exclusively by the Moosulmans; among these the Bihishtees, or Suquas, who carry water, and the Suces, or grooms, may be enumerated as the most prominent.

tutelary deity; consequently they look up to him for success and safety in all their professional exploits. These consist of playing on various instruments, singing, dancing, tumbling, &c. The two latter accomplishments are peculiar to the women of this sect. The notions of religion, and a suture state, among this vagrant race, are principally derived from their songs, which are beautifully simple. They are commonly the production of Kubeer, a poet of great same, and who, considering the nature of his poems, deserves to be still better known.* On every occa-

* He was a weaver by trade, and flourished in the reign of Sher Shah, the Cromwell of Indian history. There are, however, various and contradictory traditions relative to our humble philosopher, as some accounts bring him down to the time of Ukbur. ever, agree as to his being a Soofee, or Deist, of the most exalted sentiments, and of the most unbounded benevolence. He reprobated with severity, the religious intolerance and worship of both Hindoos and Moosulmans, in such a pleasing poetic strain of rustic wit, humour, and sound reasoning, that to this day both nations contend for the honour of his birth in their respective sects or tribes. He published a book of poems, that are still universally esteemed, as they inculcate the purest morality, and the greatest good-will and hospitality to all the children of Man. From the disinterested, yet alluring, doctrines they contain, a sect has sprung up in Hindoostan, under the name of Kubeer-punt, hee, who are so universally esteemed for veracity, and other virtues, among both Hindoos and Moosulmans, that they may be with propriety considered the Quakers of this hemisphere. They resemble that respectable body in the neatness of their dress, and simplicity of their manners, which are neither strictly Moohummudun nor Hinduwee: being rather a mixture of the best parts of both. A translation of Kubeer's works, with the life of that sage, and an account of his followers, relative to their tenets and societies, remain still as desiderata in the history of India. The time of Kubeer's death seems involved in equal obscurity with the manner of his decease and bu-They relate that he lived a long time at Kasee, near Gya, and sojourned also at Jugurnat,h, where he gave great offence to the Bruhmuns, by his conduct and tolerant doctrine. When stricken in years, he departed this life among a concourse of his disciples, both Moosulmans and Hindoos. They quarrelled about the mode of disposing of his remains, which were placed in another apartment during the dispute. The Moosulmans were, it is alledged. victors, and buried him accordingly. The Hindoos affirm, however, that his body, during the altercation, disappeared, and a Loros flower fion of doubt, they have a quotation ready from their favourite bard; and in answer to my queries respecting the state of the soul after death, one of them repeated the following stanza:

Mun moo,a nu ma,e,a moo,e mur mur gu,e sureer,

Asa tishna nu moojee kuh guje das Kubeer.

THESE lines in that philosopher's works are said to be more correctly written so;

Ma,e,a muree nu mun mura mur mur gy,a sureer, Asa tishna na mitee yon kut,h gu,e Kubeer.

Which may be thus rendered,

Nor foul nor love divine can die,

Although our frame must perish here;

Still longing hope points to the sky:

Thus fings the poet Das Kubeer.

They conceive one spirit pervades all nature; and that their soul, being a particle of that universal spirit, will, of course, rejoin it, when released from its corporeal shackles.

AT all their feasts, which are as frequent as the means will admit, men, women, and children, drink to excess. Liquor with them is the fummum bonum of life: every crime may be expiated by plentiful libations of strong drink; whence it follows, that any person

flower was found in its stead, which they have carefully preserved. Be this as it may, it is certain that his name is held in great veneration by these two very different people: those called Kubeerpunt, hee, seem nevertheless to have rather more of the Hindoo than Moosulman in their composition, which so far decides the contest in their favour.

person who has accumulated property, is soon considered as a culprit, and a charge being brought against him, the complaint is carried before a Punchaet, when the business commonly concludes by his being obliged to provide a Lethean draught for the fraternity to which he belongs. This is an exact recital of what happened to two men who waited upon me, and to whom I gave a trisling present. It was found that they had communicated to me some information which ought to have been concealed, and they therefore, in addition to the ordinary fine, underwent the peculiar punishment of having their noses rubbed upon the ground.

Though professing Islamism, they employ a Bruhmun, who is supposed to be an adept in astrology, to fix upon a name for their children, whom they permit to remain at the breast till five or six years of age. It is no uncommon thing to see four or five miserable infants clinging round their mother, and struggling for their scanty portion of nourishment, the whole of which, if we might judge from the appearance of the woman, would hardly suffice for one. This practice, with the violent exercises which they are taught in their youth, and the excessive and habitual indulgence in drinking intoxicating liquors, must greatly curtail the lives of these Their marriages are generally wretched females. deferred to a later period than is usual in this climate, in confequence of a daughter being confidered as productive property to the parents, by her profes-

^{*} The derivation of this word from panch, see, admirably illustrates the ancient practice, as well as the necessity, of a casting voice, or majority, in all judicial assemblies of a limited number, and proves alone, with numerous other instances of the same kind, how indispensible a knowledge of languages is to the observing traveller, and intelligent historian. Had all those who have written on Indian affairs hitherto, viewed this subject with the eyes of an Eton, we should not have so much to unlearn as we now must, in every matter of importance here. Whoever peruses his excellent account of Turkey, will see the force of the present remark, and apply it accordingly.

fional abilities. The girls, who are merely taught to dance and fing, like the common Nach girls of Hindooftan, have no restrictions on their moral conduct as females; but the chastity of those damsels whose peculiar department is tumbling, is strictly enjoined, until their stations can be supplied by younger ones, trained up in the same line. this event takes place, the older performers are then permitted to join the mere dancers, from among whom the men, though aware of their incontinence, make no difficulty of felecting a wife. After the matrimonial ceremony is over, they no longer exhibit as public dancers. A total change of conduct is now looked for, and generally, I believe, enfues. To reconcile this in some manner to our belief, it may be necessary to mention, that, contrary to the prevailing practice in India; the lady is allowed the privilege of judging for herself; nor are any preparations for the marriage thought of till her affent has been given in cases where no previous choice has been made.

THERE are in and about the environs of Calcutta, five sets of these people, each consisting of from twenty to thirty, exclusive of children. There is a Surdar to each set, one of whom is considered as the chief, or Nardar Boutah, at this station: the name of the present is Munbhungee,* which in one sense of the word, may be translated Bon Vivant, or Jovial Soul; and it is probable, his social qualities may have obtained for him his present exalted situation, as well

^{*} The hemp plant, well known here as an intoxicating drug, under the name of biling, corrupted to liang, is probably the word whence bilinger is derived, as this is often a term of reproach, like our drunkard, sot, &c. applied to those who indulge in the various preparations of this permitious vegetable, named subzee, ganja, chians, &c. Mun expresses the Latin mass, mind, and is the root of many common Hindoostance words. From it the name of Munoo, (Menu,) the famous Hindoo lavigiver, is regularly formed, and might be translated Intelligence, The Being, &c. It is frequently used as a term of endearment to Children, Monties, &c. like our Jackey.

as title, which, in reality, appears to be rather a Hindoo's than a Moofulman's appellation.

The extraordinary feats of agility which the women of this fet exhibit, are so well known, as to render any description unnecessary. They have no regular habitations, being contented with temporary huts, formed of the Hoogla* or Sirkee mats; and when they have occasion to change their situations, it is attended, as may easily be imagined, with but little trouble; both house and surniture would hardly be a load for one person.

The people of each fet are, like our actors, hired by the Surdar, or manager, of a company, for a certain period, generally one year; after which they are at liberty to join any other party. No person can establish a set without the sanction of the Nardar Boutah, who, I believe, receives a † Chout of the profits,

The first appears to be of the flag or sedge kind, of great use for slight enclosures, and for hining straw and tiled roofs. either to mitigate the heat of the sun, or to give the inside a finished appearance. After the conflagrations so common in all parts of India, the poor sufferers generally have recourse to the Hoogla, or Sirkee, with which they shelter themselves in temporary habitations from the weather. It is possible enough, that the far famed harbour of Hooglee derives its name from the banks of the river (which we have termed the Hooglee also) having been at that place in days of yore overgrown with this very plant, which is seldom if ever met with in the interior, or higher parts, of Hindoostan. This supposition derives weight from Hijlee, the place we absurdly name Ingellee, being famous for the production of a tree termed Hijul, a compound probably of hec, life, and jul, water, to denote the soil it thrives in. The Sirker, on the contrary, is in abundance in the upper provinces, and seems of the rush species. It is also used much in the same manner as the other; though growing in low grounds, it is not so completely an aquatic plant as the Hoogia. As the lining of Bungla roofs, it looks much neater in every respect, and is by far more durable.

† The fourth, and the notorious tax, or duty, which the Mukrattas have often claimed, without success, on our revenues. It is also supposed to be the standard quantum of public or private peculation, to which no extraordinary odium is attached among the natives, who are too apt to consider one fourth of their master's property entrusted to them at once, as the shikari hulal, or fair

game, for every honest servant's pursuit.

profits, besides a tax of two rupees, which is levied on the girls of each fet, as often as they may have attracted the notice of persons not of their own cast. This, from their mode of life, must be a tolerably productive duty. When the parties return from their excursions, this money is paid to the Nardar Boutah, who convenes his people, and they continue eating and drinking till the whole is expended. When any of the Surdars are suspected of giving in an unfair statement of their profits, a Punchaet is affembled, before whom the supposed culprit is ordered to undergo a fiery ordeal, by applying his tongue to a piece of red hot iron: if it burns him, he is declared guilty. A fine, always confifting of liquor, is imposed; the quantity agreeing, I suspect, more with the insatiable defires of the Puncha et than the nature of the crime. From a court fo constituted, the verdict, Not guilty, may feldom be looked for. If the liquor be not immediately produced, the delinquent is banished from their fociety, hooted, and execrated, whereever he comes: his very wife and children avoid him. Thus oppressed, he soon becomes a suppliant to the Nardar Boutah; to bring about a reconciliation, acknowledges the justice of their sentence, and his willinguess to abide by their award. If he has no money, and his friends cannot supply him, he must get it; and, probably, the necessity of the case may excuse the means, should they, perchance, not fquare exactly with our refined notions of honesty. However, it is but justice to this particular set to observe, that the country people seem in general to consider them as an honest inoffensive race. themselves they lay claim to great veracity and honelty; and declare, notwithstanding the story of the ordeal, that no Bazeegur would attempt a deception in the payment of his Chout. If this be a true flatement of the case, we have to lament, that the rareness of such probity renders the circumstance rather difficult of belief, especially among a people whose notions of morality must be very loose, if we

can with propriety form an unfavourable opinion from the derivative word Nutk, hut, meaning, in the-Hindoostanee, a rogue, blackguard, &c. Truth still forces us to add, that Nutk, hut is rather applicable to imaginary than downright roguery, in expressions of endearment and familiarity.

I CAN form no idea of their numbers in Bengal. In many places they have lands, but they are not themselves the cultivators. Burdwan seems to be their great refort: and when I first entered on this enquiry, I was informed that their chief resided at Chundurkona; that a woman, named Toota, wife of Jooqkhan, their late Nardar Boutah, was confidered as chief of all the fects in Bengal. I afterwards learnt from Munb hungee, the Nardar Boutah of Calcutta, that the above was a misrepresentation; that he and his people were not at all dependent on Chundurkona. He faid the men who had been with me before, from motives of fear, concealed his name; that all the Bazeegurs within the Purgunnus of Jushur, or Jusur, Hoogley, &c. were folely under his controul; and that the following was the traditional account they had of their ancestors. In the countries of Ghazeepoor, Ullahabad, &c. about two hundred years ago, there were four brothers, named Sa, Summoola, Ghoondra, and Moolla, who finding it difficult to support their numerous followers in that part of the country, determined to separate, and to march towards the four quarters of the world; Sa to the east. Summoolla to the west, Ghoondra to the north, and Meella to the fouth: that Sa, arriving in Bengal, took up his residence at Hooglee; that, having governed peaceably for many years, he died at Unwerpoor, near Barafut, where to this day his faithful descendants offer up their prayers to his manes. He had three fons, who succeeded each other: first, Luk, hun; the second, Momeen; the third, Ghazee Khan. The fuccession then regularly devolved on Gholamee Khan, Ouladee Khan, Sadee Khan, Urub

Urub Khan, Moonuwwur Khan Mifree, Sundul Khan, and Rujbee Khan, father to the present chief, Munb hungee. He allows that the family of the Nardar Bontah of Chundurkona is descended from the same stock, and that the boundaries of that department extend to Medneepoor,* Burdwan, and Meseshidahad; that none of her people can enter his districts with an intention of procuring money by dancing, or begging, without obtaining his permission, and paying accordingly. The same system holds good in respect to his dependents visiting her country. Those men and women who are not in any of the fets, wander about from place to place, obtaining a precerious livelihood by begging, and fometimes by disposing of little trinkets,+ which they either fabricate themselves, or purchase in Calcutta.

These fects, viz. the Bazeegurs, having adopted, if not the religion, at least the name, of Moofulmans, are more civilized than the other wandering tribes. Their diet and apparel correspond with the Moofulmans. Some of their women are, I have heard, extremely handsome, and esteemed as courtezans in the East accordingly; though, I must confess, I have

^{*} Better known among us under the deviation Midnapore, which is very slight when compared to the number we pervert in a way that must hereafter create much confusion in the names and places, whenever we know enough of the language to write them properly. It will then, perhaps, puzzle the geographers of the day to reconcile Jessore, Ingeliee, Serampore, &c. with the true pronunciation of Jusifur, or Jusur, Hijlee, Sreerampoor, &c. by which alone the natives term these places among themselves.

[†] A tribe, termed Bisatce, supply these trinkets, and attend markets, fairs, and such places, with their small wares, exactly as our pedlars do. Bazeechu and k,hilouna are commonly applied to the toys these people sell, which, in our and the oriental languages, are properly called playthings. Those formed of tin are for the nost part fabricated by the strolling gipsies, or players named buhroor pee,a, from their dexterity in assuming various forms; buh signifying many; and roop, a face or shape.

have not feen any who, in my opinion, came under that description as to personal charms.

I CANNOT observe any peculiarity of feature which

would characterize them as a distinct people.

Before the establishment of the British government in Bengal, the Surkar appointed an officer, termed a Dam-Dar,* or tax-gatherer, to keep a register of, and to collect taxes, not only from these, but from all the other tribes of a similar description. Some say they amounted to eighteen, others to thirty-two sets, all of whom I consider as coming under the general denomination of Nut; but in statements of this kind, having no public records to resort to, I can only relate their traditions and opinions.

The dread of an intended revival of this officer's powers, caused at first much alarm among them, and operated as a considerable impediment to my enquiries. They have a strong and a very natural wish to obtain lands, which many of them have done in several parts of the country, but with no intention of being the cultivators of the soil. They have two languages peculiar to themselves; one intended for the use only of the crastsmen of the set; the other, general among men, women, and children. The Hindoostanee is the basis of both; the first, in general.

^{*} This is clearly derived from dam, a small coin, and dar, a keeper, &c. This word was, perhaps, in use even among our forefathers, and may innocently account for the expression, " not worth a fig," or a dam; especially if we recollect that ba-dam, an almond, is to this day current in some parts of India as small money. Might not dried figs have been employed anciently in the same way, since the Arabic word fooloos, a hulfpenny, also denotes a cassia bean, and the root fuls means the scale of a fish. Mankind are so apt, from a natural depravity, that " flesh is heir to," in their use of words, to pervert them from their original sense, that it is not a convincing argument against the present conjecture, our using the word curse in vulgar language in lieu of dam. The shells well known as small money under the name of kourec, often occur in the Hindoostanee, as fig, dam, farthing; sometimes with the epithet phootec kource, a split farthing. Ten kources become a dumree, probably from dam.

ral, being a mere transposition or change of syllables, and the second apparently a systematic conversion of a few letters, but which will be best elucidated by the following specimen:

Hindoostanee.	Nut 1st.	Nut 2d.	English.	
Ag,	Ga,	Kag,	Fire.	
Bans,	Suban,	Nans,	Bamboo.	
Chilum,	Limchee,	Nilum,	An Oven.	
Dum,	Mudu,	Num,	Breath.	
Ee,ad,	Da _j ee,	Ke,ad,	Remembrance.	
Fuqeer,	Reeqeefu,	Nuquer,	A Beggar.	
G,hur,	Rug,hu,	R,hur,	House.	
Hindo stan,	Dooseenatuh,	Kindoostan,	India.	
Id,hur,	D,huri,	Bid,hur,	Here.	
Jub,	Buju,	Nub,	When.	
Kon,	Onk,	Rou,	Who.	
Lumba,	Balum,	Kumba,	Long.	
Mas,	Samu,	Nas,	Month.	
Nut,	Tunu,	Kut,	A sect of people.	
Omr,	Muroo,	Komr,	Age.	
Peer,	Reepu,	Cheer,	Saint.	
Qeella,	Laqeh,	Rulla,	A Fort.	
Rooburoo,	Buroo Roo,	Kooburoo,	Opposite.	
Sona,	Na-so,	Nona,	Gold.	
Tulash,	Lashtu,	Nulash,	A search.	
Unbuna,0,	Nunbeh,	Kunbuna,0,	Disagreement.	
Waris,	Ruswa,	Quaris,	An Heir.	

I find these people in Mr. Colebrooke's arrangement of the *Hindoo* Classes, mentioned in the 6th class, under the head of Nata, Bazeegurs, &c. and

in Sir William Jones's translation of the Ordinances of (Menu) Munoo, chapter 10th, article 20, 21, 22, and 23, their origin is clearly pointed out, which the following extract will shew: "Those whom the twice-born beget on women of equal classes, but who perform not the proper ceremonies of assuming the thread, and the like, people denominated Pratvas, or excluded from the Gayatri.

46 21 .- From such an outcast Brahmen springs a son of a finful nature, who, in different countries. is named a Bhurjacantaca, an Avantya, a Vatadhana,

a Pushpadha, and a Saicha.

66 22.—From such an outcast Cshatriya comes a son called a I'halla, a Malla, a Nichhivi, a Nata, a

Carana, a C'hassa, and a Dravira.

46 23 .- From such an outcast Paisya is born a son. called Sudhanwan, Charya, Viganman, Maitra, and Satwata"

FROM the above word, Maitra, may, I imagine, be deduced the origin of the name generally applied to fweepers, and people of that description, and that the common derivation of it from the Persian word* Mihtur, a prince, may possibly be an error. It may be necessary to mention here, that I have in general endeavoured to follow Mr. Gilchrist's orthography in writing the Hindooftance words.

THE Panchpeeree, t or Budee, a, being considered appertaining

* The word muk, or mih, seems an important radical in many languages, disguised, no doubt, under other forms, as ma, mu, mai, which last may be rather corruptions easily accounted for. Muke. muhta, muhra, mih, mihtur, &c. are all Oriental words, denoting superiority, grandeur, command, &c. which may often be misapplied to inferior situations, either as derisive or conciliating terms: the origin, therefore, of maitra, and militur, may still be the same. Mak, applied to the moon, especially with the addition of tab-light, clearly expresses the great-light among the smaller lights, or Stars: Mikr, in both Persian and Sunskrit, applies to the Sun, and, in my opinion, signifies the great one, on etymological principles, that cannot be very obscure to any well informed orientalist,

4 This appellation may have a reference to their division into five

appertaining to the same class as the Bazeegurs, and equally with them termed Nuts, I have herewith annexed a short account of them also.

THE Panchpeeree, or Budee, a Nuts, differ from the Bazeegurs in many points; though, probably, in their manners, there will be found a stronger similitude to the Gypsies of Europe, than in those of any others which may come under review.

They have no particular fystem of religion, adopting, with indifference, that of the village near to which they happen to be encamped. However, I imagine, when left to themselves, under the impression of immediate or impending ill, the goddess Kali generally obtains the preference. Indeed, the influence of this deity often extends to the lower orders in Bengal, whether they be Hindoos* or Moosulmans. The Panchpeerce* wander in companies in the same manner, and inhabit, if I may use the word, huts of a similar form and fabrication, as the Bazeegurs.

The men are remarkably athletic, and also nimble and adroit in every kind of slight of hand, practifing juggling

races, houses, or families, as peerce occasionally seems to bear that interpretation, though it certainly may admit of others. In this place, however, it probably rather applies to these people as conformists to whatever religious system may be the order of the day in their peregrinations over *Hindoostan*.

*It must strike the attentive traveller with astonishment, to learn in how many observances the various Moosulman tribes copy the Hindoos, and vice versa. Among the votaries of Kalee, the degenerate race of Portuguese will also often be found; so powerful is the influence of moral and physical causes, in the lapse of ages, from the conquered on the conquerors, in spite of religious bigotry

and national prejuices.

† In the upper provinces of Hindoostan, the little encampments of these people are frequently very regular and neat, being there formed of the Sirkee entirely. Each apartment, though not much larger than a mastiff's kennel, has its own particular enclosure, or conrtyard, generally erected in such a manner as to become a species of circumvallation to the whole portable hamlet, which, at first sight, reminds a traveller of Lilliput, or Fairy Land. The appearance of the people can alone undo the deception; and even then one cannot

help

juggling in all its branches. As tumblers they exhibit not only feats of agility, but great instances of strength. There are about a hundred houses at prefent of these people in Calcutta, formed into five divisions: there is a Surdar to each division, one of whom, as with the Bazeegurs, is confidered as the head of the whole. His revenues feem principally to arise from the offerings of strong liquor, which he receives from his dependants. They (meaning fuch as have attached themselves to Calcutta and its environs), feem to have nearly the fame boundaries as the Bazeegurs; though there are communities of this cast spread all over Bengal, appearing under the various denominations of Cheere-Mars, Sumperas, Bundur Nachwya, Qulundur, Dukyt, &c. Many of these have become Moofulmans, and having taken up their abode in villages, gain a livelihood by exposing dancing monkies, bears, &c. to the vulgar, or by the fabrication of mats, trinkets, &c. Some of them wander about as fects of religionists, and calling themselves Moosulman Fuquers, live on the bounty of the pious followers of the Prophet. They have a traditional account of four generations, and do not, like the Bazeegurs, consider themselves as foreigners in Bengal. This particular tribe of the Nuts are fuspected of being great thieves; many of them I understand are daily punished for thest, and in their capacity of Dukyts, are, no doubt, often hanged. Vol. VII.

help wondering, where so many men, women, children, and other domestic animals, manage to sleep or shelter themselves from the storms which sometimes assail these itinerant people. A detailed account of the peculiar tribe, who, from their occupation of taming and charming snakes, derive the name of Sumpera, might prove worthy of public attention, especially if from it we could discover whether either they or the Mungoos, called Newul, are acquainted with any specific against the bite of a venomous snake, whose fangs have not been bona side extracted, or deprived of their poisonous fluid by previous repeated exertions upon other bodies.

Daka means robbery, and in the active or agent form becomes

They also have a peculiar jargon, formed upon similar principles with that of the Bazeegurs. This formation of a separate dialect conveys no very savourable impression of either of these sets, since many people may conceive it so much resembles the cant of rogues among ourselves, invented for the purpose of concealing their conduct as much as possible from honest men.

THEY inter their dead; and the only ceremony feems to be to forget their forrows, by getting com-

pletely drunk immediately afterwards.

Many of the subdivisions of this class of men pay little or no attention to cleanliness, or any restrictions in diet, eating dead jackals, bullocks, horses, or any kind of food procurable. Besides their usual occupation, the men collect medicinal herbs, catch mungooses, squirrels, and particularly the bird called daho: the former, if not saleable, answer admirably for a feast. The birds are dried, and used as a medicine. Their women do not attend them during the exhibition of their juggling exploits, but have a peculiar department allotted to themselves, which confists of the practice of physic, cupping, palmistry, curing disorders of the teeth, and marking the skin of the Hindoo women, an operation termed Godna: they usually fally out in the morning with a quantity of the herbs and dried birds, and, begging from door to door, offer their services generally to the females only, in the cure of whose ailments they pretend to have a peculiar knowledge. Should it so happen that they do not return home before the Jackal's cry is heard in the evening, their fidelity is suspected, and

Dakyt, notorious for their depredations as pirates in the Soondurbun branches of the Gunga or Ganges, by the name of Decoits. If we may credit very respectable testimonies of the fact, these Dukyts are frequently guilty of sacrificing human victims to Kalee, under circumstances of horror and atrocity scarcely credible. and they subject themselves to the displeasure of their husbands, and are punished accordingly. A fault of that nature committed with any one not of their own cast, is an unpardonable crime.

THEIR marriage ceremonies are as follow. All parties being agreed, and the day fixed on, they assemble before the bride's house between nine and ten o'clock at night. The bridegroom, accompanied by all his relations, male and female, places himself before the door, near to which are fixed four plantain trees, forming a square large enough to contain the company. He calls out with a loud voice, 66 Give me my Bride." The brother, or some such near relation, guards the door, and prevents his entrance; nay, rudely pusses him away. The laugh is now general against the poor bridegroom, and many are the jokes on all hands played upon him. However, not to be put off so, he makes two more attempts, calling out all the while for his bride; which proving ineffectual, he in much feeming grief (for the whole appears a farce) retires, and fits down in the centre of the square, and there in melancholy mood bewails his fate. When the parties conceive they have fufficiently tried the man's patience, they then intercede in his behalf with the guardian of the door, who bringing forth the bride, delivers her hand into the bridegroom's, saying, "Here is your bride; behave kindly to her." She also receives an exhortation to conduct herself like a good and obedient wife. The bridegroom now taking a little red powder, which is prepared for the occasion, makes a mark with it on her forehead, calling out, "This woman is my wedded wife." The bride also marks the bridegroom's face, repeating at the same time, "This man is my husband." They sit down together, and the company arrange themselves in a circular form on each side. The little fingers of his left and her right hand being joined, they fit close together, so that their Hh2

knees may lap over each other. The merriment of the evening now begins, all parties dancing, finging, drinking and smoking, except the bride, who for this one day in her life is expected to refrain from the intoxicating draught. After a short space they arise; and the bridegroom, accompanied by the semale part of the company, conveys the bride to the house where the bridegroom and bride's mothers are affembled, neither of whom are permitted to appear before him this night: however, this restriction damps not the joy of the old ladies: liquor is plentifully

supplied, and they partake freely of it.

THE bridegroom having rejoined the party in the square, every one sets seriously to work, and it appears now a fair trial to prove who shall most expeditiously accomplish the important business of intoxication. A little after day-light, the caval-cade prepare to fet off for the bridegroom's house. Whatever dowry the parents can give is now delivered; and the little fingers of this happy couple being again joined, as before described, they lead the way. Before the bridegroom's door (or rather before his parent's, it being to their house they are conducted) stands an earthen pot filled with water, and in which is placed a small fresh branch of a mangoe tree, intended, as I should conjecture, as an emblem of plenty. The mother then comes forwards with a fieve, containing a roopee, some unhusked rice, paint, and Doob grass.* This she waves round each of their heads three times, and touches their foreheads with it.

banks

[&]quot;This is probably one of the most common, useful, and beautiful grasses in this or any other country; and, like the cow which feeds upon it, is held in high religious veneration by many tribes of Hindoos. A natural velvet carpet, if the expression be admissible here, may at any time be formed of this elegant grass, in the space of two or three weeks, merely by chopping it in pieces, and sprinking these on prepared ground mixed with earth. In this way the

it.* This ceremony being performed, the bridegroom leads the bride into the house, where she is received by the old lady with many welcomes, who promifes, if she but conducts herself like a good wife, that she shall have all her goods and chattles when the dies. The men now affemble in front of the house. The women remain within; and a feast being prepared, the same scene of immoderate intoxication fucceeds. When evening arrives, the bride goes, or is conducted, (if there be a semale of the party sufficiently fleady to accompany her,) to the hut allotted for her. Such of the company as are able, now depart; whilst the rest, among whom the bridegroom may generally be numbered, pass the night on the plain in beaftly infenfibility, leaving the folitary bride to her own fober reflections. From the time their children are five or fix months old, they are accustomed to imbibe strong spirits: indeed, it may be faid, they draw it in with their mother's milk. They appear to be a most inconsiderate race of be-Hha

banks of rivers, public roads, fortifications, ditches, garden walks, and marginal borders, are frequently prepared in India, upon principles which unite expedition, elegance, and strength, in one verdant sward, which, to people unacquainted with the rapidity of vegetation in these climes, has almost the appearance of enchantment. Every lover of agriculture and rural economy at home, must regret that this charming plant has not yet been fairly tried in Europe, where it would probably yield both profit and pleasure to all its admirers. The roots are esteemed medicinal by the natives, and there can be little doubt of the nutritive quality of the whole plant considered as the food of animals. It is so well known to the Hindoostanees, and probably so often the object of attention, in the rural sports and excursions of the people or their children, that the expression doob ka chhulla, a ring of doob, is frequently introduced in their stories, to express that a petitioner did not even receive a doob ring from the person solicited, or what we might render, he did not even see the colour of his coin. As rings are exchanged at weddings by the parties, it is possible their poverty may sometimes cause them to substitute, at least pro tempore, those formed of the grass in question.

* This circular motion, so common on such occasions in this country, is termed warna, to sucrifice; and probably, from the convertibility of m with w, a more deviation from marna, to kill,

ings, never thinking of to-morrow: all their views are concentrated in the enjoyment of the present moment, and that enjoyment consisting wholly in excessive intoxication, and the grossest indulgence of the

fensual appetites.

A REFERENCE, in their disputes, is never made bevond their own sect; and if of so serious a nature that a small Puncha et cannot accommodate the matter, the Bura Surdar convenes a general affembly, but which assembly never enters on business until a quantity of spirits, equal to the importance of the cause, has been provided by both plaintiff and defendant. The perfon non-suited has ultimately to bear the expence, unless, as it frequently occurs, (all parties during the discussion being indulged in a free participation of the liquor,) that the judges, plaintiff, and defendant, sould forget every idea of the ease before them, but of that which contains the spirits. The sequel may be easily conjectured. The Puncha et disperses by degrees; and the contending parties, when aroused from the torpor of intoxication, frequently awake only to regret their own folly.

These people, in the upper provinces of Hindoo-stan, are known by the appellation of Kunjura, whence a particular friend of mine, in speaking on the subject, conjectured might be derived our term Conjurer. Were not so great an authority as Johnson, with those scholars who derive it from conjuro* in our way, I should almost be inclined to agree with

^{*} The Latin, however, has no such term from that source to express the person in question; and there was nothing to prevent the modern languages of Europe from adopting this and other vocables from the Gipsies, at the period they were wandering over it in the capacity of conjucers, &c. That derivatives are used by the moderns, which the ancients had no idea of, may safely be granted, without invalidating the consistency or probability of the present conjecture. In fact, the study of etymology, as a rational science, is still too much in its infancy, to warrant the hasty condemnation of particular opinions on the derivation of certain words, as some that at present will appear whimsical enough, may yet prove hereafter to have been well founded.

him in opinion. Be this as it may, I find a people of this kind described as living near Constantinople, who are termed Cingarees, and whose language is said to be Hindoostanee, which word, without any sorce beyond the fair bounds of etymology, may be a mere derivation from Kunjura.

THE Conjurers, or Jugglers, who arrived in Europe about the 13th century, and who introduced the viol of three strings, appear to have been a race almost exactly similar to what the Bazeegurs are at this day; in confirmation of which, the following extract from Doctor Burney's History of Music may not be thought inapplicable,

H h 4 Extract.

Even the word juggler may be of Indian extraction; although there exist, according to Johnson, both French and Latin originals against it, as well as the word jug in our own tongue. Cups, jugs, mugs, might all have been used at first by conjurers in various ways, whence to juggle, as a verb, stands on nearly the same ground with handle, and many more. In the Hinduwee dialects, jugg is applied to a particular act of worship, which the Brukmuns alone can perform, and by virtue of which they pretend to acquire sometimes preternatural powers. In this way they hope for the success of their muntur, or incantations; and in imitation of them, the Gipsies may have preserved the name, on their arrival in the European territories, with many other mysterious customs and lofty pretensions. Juggee, juggul, juggula, jugela, juggwala, are all natural combinations to express the man so qualified, which by our ancestors could be as soon converted to juggler, as khansaman, burga, and hoogu, in modern times, have been to consumer, burgher, and hooker; though we have the means of correcting such absurd corruptions, which did not exist when the Gipsies first appeared in our quarter of the globe. Even admit. ting that we can trace much of our language up to the Latin, and Greek, it remains still a doubt whether these are the stock or branches of the oldest oriental tongues.

* The word gui-tar probably springs from si-tar, a species of viol much used now in Hindpostan, and which, though originally, as its name implies, only a three-stringed instrument, is frequently to be met with here as a four, five, six, nay, seven-stringed viol. With six strings it would naturally be termed chhi-tar, ki-tar, progressively to gui-tar, as we now spell it, the last syllable of which clearly points out whence it ought to be derived, as tar, in the Hindoostance, is a well known word for wire, string, &c.

Extract.—" About 1330, the Minstrels of Paris formed themselves into a company, and obtained a charter. The police frequently represed their licentiousness, and regulated their conduct. Philip Augustus banished them the first year of his reign; but they were recalled by his successors, and united under the general name of Minstrelsy, having a Chief appointed over them, who was called the King of the Minstrels. Lewis the IXth exempted them from a tarisf, or toll, at the entrance at Paris, on condition that they would sing a song, and make their monkeys dance to the toll-men, &c. &c.

"THE affociated Minstrels inhabited a particular street, to which they gave the name it still retains. It was here that the public was provided with musicians for weddings and parties of pleasure. a greater number of them attended such occasions than were ordered, and all expected to be paid the same price," "William de Girmont, Provost of Paris 1331, prohibited the Jungleurs, and Jungleuresses, from going to those who required their performance, in greater numbers than had been stipulated, upon a severe penalty. In 1395, their libertinism and immoralities again incurred the cenfure of government, by which it was strictly enjoined, that they should henceforth, neither in public or private, speak, act, or sing, any thing that was indecorous, or unfit for modest eyes and ears, upon pain of two months imprisonment, and living upon bread and water." But let us hear one of the jugglers relate his own story. After speaking of his power in music, he proceeds:

"I from lovers tokens bear,
I can flowry chaplets weave,
Amorous belts can well prepare,
And with courteous speech deceive.
Joint-stool feats to shew I'm able;
I can make the beetle run

All alive upon the table,
When I shew delightful fun.
At my slight of hand you'll laugh,
At my magic you will stare;
I can play at quarter staff,
I can knives suspend in air;
I enchantment strange devise,
And with chord and sling surprise."

I SHALL now draw a short parallel between the Gipfies of Europe and the people I have described.

BOTH the Gipsies and the Nuts are generally a wandering race of beings, seldom having a fixed habitation. They have each a language peculiar to themselves. That of the Gipsies is undoubtedly a species of Hindoostance, and so is that of the Nuts. In Europe it answers all the purposes of concealment. Here a conversion of its syllables becomes necessary.

THE Gipfies have their king; the Nuts their Nardar Boutah: they are equally formed into companies, and their peculiar employments are exactly fimilar; viz. dancing, finging, music, palmistry, quackery, dancers of monkeys, bears, and fnakes. The two latter professions, from local causes, are peculiar to the Nuts. They are both confidered as thieves, at least that division of the Nuts whose manners come nearest the Gipsies. In matters of religion they appear equally indifferent: and as for food, we have seen that neither the Gipsies nor Budee, a Nuts are very choice in that particular; and though I have not obtained any fatisfactory proof of their eating human flesh, I do not find it easy to divest my mind of its suspicions on this head. one would think the stomach that could receive without nausca a piece of putrid jackal, could not well retain any qualms in the felection of animal food.

Though in the Encyclopedia Britannica, Grellman's theory is thought flightly of, the fimilarity of language

pet in this instance, even in opposition to such authority, I will venture to consider it as forming a basis of the most substantial kind. It is not the accidental coincidence of a few words, but the whole vocabulary he produces differs not so much from the common Hindoostance, as provincial dialects of the same country usually do from each other. Grellman, from a want of knowledge in the Hindoostance, lost many opportunities of producing the proper word in comparison with the Gipsy one.

THE story of the Malabar students being rejected, upon the supposition that they, being Bruhmuns, and only conversant in Sunscrit,* could not have understood the common Hindoostanee dialect, offers a good specimen of the kind of criticism which Grellman has to fear.

THE following list of words, which were taken from the Annual Register of 1784-5, with a few I have now subjoined from Grellman, in some of the instances

^{*} It has not yet been incontestibly proved, that the Sunscription ever was a spoken language in India; and the few Bruhmuns who now can speak it at all, seldom, if ever, talk that language in their own domestic concerns; on the contrary, they commonly employ the prevalent local dialect of the place, which will frequently be a species of Hindoostance. There are so very few towns, cities, or even large villages, which were ever conquered, or even much frequented, by the Moosulmans, in the whole Pominsula of India, wherein this colloquial language is not more or less understood, that we can scarcely conceive there are many travelling Bruhmuns who require a previous knowledge of the Superit before they can understand Hindoostance. The objection on the score of the Gypsie and Hindoostanee numbers being so different, if they really be so, might be answered by adverting to the arbitrary introduction of a new series of numerical words into some Indian dialects, where the substance of any particular speech in question will be found to agree, 'almost in every thing but number, with many other tongues from the same source.

instances where he has failed of producing the corresponding Hindooslanee one, will, I hope prove the language of the Gipsies, and that of Hindooslanee, to be the same, or very intimately connected with each other.

Gipsy.	Hindoostance,	English.
Apra,	Copur,	Above.
Bebee,	Besbee,	Aunt, a respectful fo- minine appellation, from Baba, father.
Pownee,	Panee,	Brook, drink, water, tears.
Cauliban,	Kala-burn,	Black, a black colour.
Chericloe,	Chiree,a,	Bird.
Per,	Peroo,	Belly, the lower part of the belly.
Jamoval co panee	Panee,	& Bath, water to bathe.
drowei paneeja,e,	Jul,	Ditto.
Davies, devus,	Dewus,	Day, to day.
Rattie,	Rat,	Dark, night.
Peola,	Peena,	To drink.
Can,	Kan,	Ear.
Dad,	Dada,	Father, Grand-father.
Jag.	Ag,	Fire.

Gipfy.

^{*} Should any real *Hindoostance* scholars ever investigate this matter on the spot in Europe, their evidence and observations will probably settle the matter effectually, one way or other, for ever.

476 AN ACCOUNT OF THE BAZEEGURS,

Gipsy. Hindoottanee. English.
Peroe, Pyr, Foot.

Valashte, Bilisht, Finger, a span.

Por,Pŏŏr,Full.Mutchee,Muchee,Fish.

Bootsee, Buhotsee (in the fe- Great, a great deal.

minine,)

Gur, G, hur, House.
Shing, Seeng, Horn.
Ballow, Bal, Hair.

Tattoo, Tutta, Heat, hot.
Yacorah, Yek G,huree, An hour.
Bocolee, B,hook,ha, Hungry.

Shunalee, Soona,ee, Hearing.

ka,

Gecoa,

Liecaw, Lik,ha, Letters, any thing writ-

Jee, or Jee,00, jee,00- Life, living.

ten.

Riah, Ra,e, Lord. Rriena, Ra,enee, Ranee, Lady.

Dai, Dage, Mother, a nurse.

Mass, Mas, Meat or food, flesh

meat.

Tod, Dood,h, Milk.

Boot, Buhot, Much, numbers.

Nack, Nak, Nose.

Nie, Nuh, Nail of the finger.

Nevo, Ny,a, nou, New.

Bouropanee, Bura panee, Ocean, sea, wave; the

great water.

A SECT COMMONLY DENOMINATED NUTS. 477

Girsy.	Hindoostanee.	English.
Rashee,	Rishee,	Priest; a saint or holy
÷		man.
Briskinee,	Burk, ha, burushna,	Rain, to rain, from the
		Sunskrit vurshunung.
Doriove,	Durec,a,	River.
Lolo,	Lal,	Red.
Bauro-chairee,	Buree ch/hooree,	Sword, a great knife.
Pan and Pon,	Buhin,	Sister. B is often inter-
		changeable with Pin
		the Hindoostance.
Roop,	Roopa,	Silver.
Starrie,	Sitara, tara,	Star.
Sep and Sup,	Samp, surp,	Serpent.
Dicken,	Dak,hna,	Sight, to see.
Loon;	Loon, lon,	Salt.
Banaw,	Baloo,	Sand.
Chive.	Jeebb,	Tongue. ch is often in-
		terchangeable with j,
		and v with b.
Rook,	Rook,h,	Tree.
Dennam,	Dundan, dant,	Tooth.
Chalk.	Kaka or Chucha,	Uncle.
Panee,	Panee,	Water.
Jaw,	Ana jana,	To walk, to come, to go.
Bouro Matchee	, Buree Muchee.	Whale, a large fish.
Kalico,	Kul-ko.	Yesterday, with the
		postposition.

478 AN ACCOUNT OF THE BAZEEGURS,

Gypsy. Hindoostance. English.

Tober, Tubl, An Ax.
Tscher, Chor, A Thief.

Dori, Dori, A band or string. Rajah, Rajah, A Lord or Chief.

Rance, Rance, Princess.

Raz, Raj, Principality.

Banduk, Bundoog, A Musket.

Gan Jagga, Gawn, Juggah, A Village or Place.

Jammadar, Jemmadar, A. Commander or Offi-

cer.

Wesch, Whaisha, Forest or Wild. Gour, Gor, The Grave.

Mul, Mool, Wine.

Latcho, Acho, Good.

Dur. Dorr. Far.

Perdo, Poordo, To fill up, to accom-

plish.

Cha, Chabben, K,hana, Chabbna, To eat.

Ischummedele, Chooma Detee, She kisses.

Jungustri, Ungooshturee, A Ring.
Are, Ard, Meal.

Paka, Punk,h, A Wing. Schut vinegar, Khutta, Sour.

Ker, Ghur, House.

Sapa, Saboon. Soap.

Aduito. Dotuh, Double.

Gipfy.

A SECT COMMONLY DENOMINATED NUTS. 479

Gipsy.	Hindoostance.	English. To warm. To smell.		
Tatip,	Tapna,			
Surgawa,	Soonghna,			
Gewawa,	Gana,	To sing.		
Mongua,	Mongna,	To solicit.		
Pi,	Peena,	To drink.		
Metschans,	Metschana, Pub,channa,			
Medikkaha, Myn deekat,ha,		I saw.		

THERE can be no doubt that many others might be selected, were it necessary to add more proofs of the identity or intimate connection of the Gipsy and Hindoostance languages here.

XX.

On the BURMHA GAME of CHESS, Compared with the Indian, Chinese, and Persian, GAME of the same Denomination.

BY THE LATE CAPTAIN HIRAM COX.

Communicated in a Letter from him to J. H. HARINGTON, Esq.

DEAR SIR,

I HAVE now the pleasure to send you a drawing of the Burmha chess table, with the pieces arranged according to the ordinary mode of playing the game; and subjoin an account of the Burmha game, with a comparative view of the Indian, Chinese, and Persian games; and should it appear to you worthy of notice, I have to request you will do me the savour to lay it before the Society.

IT has been said, that an accurate judgment may be formed of any society, from a view of the amusements of the people: this is one of those sweeping affertions which indolence too often induces us to admit without sufficient examination; and, however true in a general sense, is little applicable to the purposes of life; for it often, indeed generally, happens, as in Lavater's System of Physiognomy, one feature counterasts the effects of another, so as to perplex the whole, and defeat the end of enquiry.

ARE the gay airy Parisians, heretofore so celebrated for polish, and so conversant in the cant of philanthropy, more humane than our rough countrymes,

who have been stigmatized as sanguinary, from their delighting in boxing, cock-fighting, and bear-baiting? But instances of contradictions of this kind between particular habits and general character in every nation, must be too familiar to you, to require illustration by surther examples; and I am sure you will agree with me, that it is the wifest and safest course, to avoid forming general conclusions from partial views.

A MEMBER does not form a whole; and who has the means of examining and comparing all the parts of fo stupendous a system, as forms the history and character of man, even in the meanest of the subdivisions of society? We therefore must not conclude that the Burmhas are a scientistic or intelligent people, because they play chess; nor that they are brutally savage, because they sometimes eat the slesh of their enemies.

CHESS, by universal consent, holds the first rank among our sedentary amusements, and its history has employed the pens of many eminent men. Among the number, Sir William Jones has obliged the world with an essay, replete, as usual, with erudition and information. But while I avow the warmest admiration of his talents, and subscribe, with all due deference, to his authority, I must be allowed to acknowledge a difference of sentiment.

Sir William says, "The beautiful simplicity, and extreme persection, of the game, as it is commonly played in Europe and Asia, convinces me, that it was invented by one effort of some great genius; not completed by gradual improvements, but formed, to use the phrase of Italian critics, by the first intention." But it appears to me that all he afterwards adduces on the subject, is so far from corroborating, that it is in direct contradiction of this opinion; and I trust my further combating it will neither be deem-

ed impertinent nor invidious. The errors of a great mind are, of all others, the most material to be guarded against; and Sir William himself, had he lived to reconsider the subject, I am sure, would have been the first to expunge a passage of so unqualified construction. Perfection has been denined us, undoubtedly, for wise purposes; and progression is necessary to the happiness of our existence. No human invention is so perfect but it may be improved: and no one is, or has been, so great, but another may be greater.

I have elsewhere had occasion to observe, that, generally speaking, nature is slow, silent and uniform in all her operations; and I am induced to think, that what is true of the material world, equally holds as to the intellectual. In this opinion I am supported by the testimony of Sir Isaac Newton, who, with equal modesty and truth, replied to one of his admiring friends, that, if he surpassed others in his attainments, he owed it entirely to a patient habit of thinking. All great efforts are violations of the order of nature, and, as such, are rather to be deprecated than admired. In common language, they are called convulsions, and I consess myself opposed to convulsions of every kind.

Six William Jones's evidence goes to confirm the opinion, that we are indebted to the Hindoos for the game of ches; but the description of the game which he has given from the Bhawishya Puran, has nothing of that beautiful simplicity which called forth his admiration. Indeed, he admits, that the Indian game, described by him, is more complex; and he considers it more modern than the simple game of the Persians, of which he could not find any account in the writings of the Brahmans.

Hz informs us, that the Sanfcrit name is Chaturanga; and the root from which the name of the game is derived in modern languages. It literally means the four members of an army, elephants, horses, chariots, and foot soldiers, the same as exhibited at this day; but the game described by him, is more generally known by the name of Chatúráji, or the four kings, fince he observes, " it is played by four persons representing as many princes, two allied armies combating on each side." The board is quadrilateral, with fixty-four checks, as ours; but what forms one army with us, is divided into two. each having its king, elephant, horse, and boat, with four foot soldiers in front, placed at the lefthand angle of each face of the board. The power of the king is the same as in the modern game; the elephant has the same powers as the English queen. moving at will in all directions; the horse the same as the modern horse, or knight; the boat, as the modern bishop, with the limitation of moving only two checks at once; the peon the same as the modern pawn.

This game is mentioned in the oldest law books, and is said to have been invented by the wife of Ravan, king of Lanca, (i. e. Ceylon,) in order to amuse him with an image of war, (field war, I suppose, is meant,) while his metropolis was closely besieged by Rama, in the second age of the world. Rama, according to Sir William Jones's Chronology of the Hindoos, appeared on earth at least three thousand eight hundred years ago; and this event happened

^{*} The high degree of polish which prevailed at the court of Ravan at this early period, is well worthy notice. In a copy from an ancient Hindoo painting which I possess, his capital appears to be regularly fortified in the antique style, with projecting round towers and battlements, and he is said to have defended it with singular ability; hence he and his people were called magicians and giants; for, to the invading Rama, and his hordes of Barbarian mountaineers, called, in derision, satyrs or monkeys, his science must have appeared superintural. In fact, Ravan appears to have been the Archimedes of Lanca.

in an early part of his career; yet, notwithstanding these proofs of antiquity and originality, Sir William Jones was of opinion, that this rudimental and complex game, is a more recent invention than the residued game of the Persians and Europeans; which he also states to have been certainly invented in India, and appears, therefore, to have considered the original. But to admit this, would, I conceive, be inverting the usual order of things.

Two other distinctions are remarkable of the *Hindco* game; the introduction of a ship, or boat, amongst troops, &c. embattled on a plain; and the use of dice, which determine the moves, and, as Sir William justly observes, exclude it from the rank which has been assigned to chess among the sciences.

In respect to the first of these distinctions, I cannot help suspecting a mistake in translating the passage, which I must leave to abler critics to decide. In explaining the meaning of Chatur-anga, Sir William says, "That is the four angas, or members, of an army, which are said, in the Amaracosha, to be Hasty aswa ratha padatam, or elephants, horses, chariots, and soot soldiers." And the same names are used in India at this day."

Sir William notices the Chinese game as having a river described on the board, which the Indian board has not; and seems to inser, that a ship, or boat, might be introduced in the Chinese game with propriety. Hence a query might arise, whether the Indian board, as now used, is the ancient one appropriate to the game, in which a boat is said to be introduced instead of a chariot; but in the Chinese game, of which I have an account before me, although what is erroneously termed a river, is delineated on the board, yet there is no ship or boat among the pieces.

^{*} See note at the end of this paper.

Instead of a boat, they have a chariot. How are we to reconcile these contradictions? I fear, in the present state of our information, they are inexplicable. At all events, I shall attempt only as distinct an account as is in my power, of the four principal games and modes of playing chess in Asia, viz. first, the one from the Purans, cited by Sir William Jones as above; second, the Chinese, described by Mr. Irwin; third, the Burmha; and, lastly, the Persian or present Hindoostance; comparing them with each other and the English game; and must leave it to some more fortunate enquirer to determine which is the original.

I HAVE given precedence to the game said to be invented at Lanca, as it appears to be the most ancient, according to the authorities adduced by Sir William Jones; and as the Persians admit that they received the game from India. I am aware that the Honourable Mr. Daines Barrington, in a paper published in the Archæologia at London, gives it as his opinion, that the Chinese game is the most ancient; and has taken great pains to disprove the Grecian claim to the invention; (vide 9th volume of the Archæologia.) But, according to the Chinese manufcript accompanying Mr. Irwin's account in Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, the Chinese invalidate their claim of originality, by fixing the date of the game they affume the honour of inventing, 174 years before the Christian era.

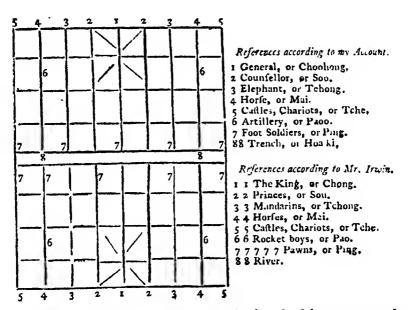
Ancient Hindoo Game of Chefs.

TABLE.

						Bla	ick ari	ny.	
				NOR	TH.				
Yellov	4	5			I	દ	3	+	REFERENCES.
Yellow army	3	٦,			5	Ş	ş	ς	7 The King or Raja. 2 The Elephant or Hatti. 3 The Horse or Aswa.
	2	5							4 The Boat or Nauca. or The Chariot or Ratha. 5 The Payins or Padata.
WEST.	Ľ	5							Ė
							~	-	EAST
							5	*	
	5	5	5	5			5	3	fig.
	4	3	2	1			S	4	Red army
				40 U	TW.				

In the Hindoo game, I have already noticed, that the principal distinction from the English, consists in having four distinct armies and kings; each army composed of half the number of pieces and pawns used in one of ours: secondly, the elephant holds the station and power of our queen: thirdly, there is a boat instead of our castle, but with the powers of a bishop limited to a move of two checks at once: fourthly, the pawn, or peon, has not an optional rank when advanced to the last line of the adversary's checks, merely affuming the rank of the piece whose place he possesses, (excepting the boat:) fifthly, the use of dice to determine the moves, as follows: When a cinque is thrown, the king, or pawn, must be moved; a quatre, the elephant; a trois, the horse; and a deux, the boat. Other variations are, that the king, elephant, and horse, may slay, but cannot be flain: neither does it appear that the king can be removed to a place of more security, by any operation similar to the modern more of castling. Indeed, the mode of playing this game is very obscurely described: all that is known of it, has already been published by Sir William Jones in the Transactions of the Society, to which I must refer those who require further information.

Account of the Chinese Game of Chess. TABLE.



MR. Irwin's account I shall give in his own words, as follows: "The very next day my Mandarin brought me the board and equipage; and I found that the Brahmins were neither mislaken touching the board, which has a river in the middle to divide the contending parties, nor in the powers of the King, who is entrenched in a fort, and moves only in that space in every direction: but, what I did not hear before, nor do I believe is known out of this country, (China,) there are two pieces whose move-

ments are distinct from any in the Indian or European game. The Mandarin, which answers to our Bishop in his station and side-long course, cannot, through age, cross the river; and a Rocket-boy, still used in the Indian armies, who is stationed between the lines of each party, acts literally with the motion of the Rocket, by vaulting over a man, and taking his adversary at the other end of the board. Except that the King has his two Sons to support him, instead of a Queen, the game, in other respects, is like ours, as will appear in the plan of the board and pieces I have the honour to enclose, together with directions to place the men, and play the game."

THE preceding diagram is the Chinese table, and differs from ours, by having a chasm in the middle, called, by some, a river, and the crossed sections or forts in which move the Cheng and Sou. The board, or game, according to Mr. Irwin, is called Chong-ki,

or royal game.

THE explanation of the position, powers, and

moves of the pieces, he gives as follows.

"As there are nine pieces instead of eight, to occupy the rear rank, they stand on the lines between, and not within, the squares; the game is consequently played on the lines.

of this row; his moves resemble those of our King, but are confined to the fortress marked out for him.

THE two Princes, or Sou, stand on each side of

him, and have equal powers and limits.

Bishops, and have the same moves, except that they cannot cross the water, or white space in the middle of the board, to annoy the enemy, but stand on the defensive.

"THE Knights, or rather horses, called Mái,

stand and move like ours in every respect.

"THE War Chariots, or Tche, resemble our rocks or tastles.

66 THE

"The Rocket-boys, or Pao, are pieces whose motions and powers were unknown to us. They act with the direction of a rocket, and can take none of their adversary's men that have not a piece or pawn intervening. To defend your men from this attack, it is necessary to open the line between either, to take off the check on the King, or to save a man from being captured by the Pao. Their operations is otherwise like that of the rook, their stations are marked be-

tween the pieces and pawns.

"The five Pawns, or Ping, make up the number of men equal to that of our board, (i. e. fixteen). Inflead of taking fideways, like ours, they have the rook's motion, except that it is limited to one step, and is not retrograde. Another important point in which the Ping differs from ours, is, that they continue in statu quo after reaching their adversary's head quarters. It will appear, however, that the Chinese pieces far exceed the proportion of ours, which occasions the whole force of the contest to fall on them, and thereby precludes the beauty and variety of our game, when reduced to a struggle between the pawns, who are capable of the highest promotion, and often change the fortune of the day. The posts of the Ping are marked in front."

So far Mr. Irwin. His account being, according to my apprehension, indistinct and incomplete, and to my knowledge, in some respects, erroneous, I have been induced to make further inquiries on the subject, the result of which, I hope, will supply his deficiencies, or, at least, give us a more accurate idea of

the Chinese game.

THE game is called by the Chinese, Choke-choo-hong-ki; literally, The play of the science of war.

THE piece 1, which we call the King, is named Chooking, which may be rendered the scientific in war, or generalissimo; he moves one pace at a time in any direction, the same as our King, but within the limits of his fort.

THE two pieces of next rank, No. 2. 2. are called Sou by the Chinese, which literally means bearded old men, or men of great experience in war. These are supposed to act as counsellors to the Chookong. and have precifely the same moves and powers as the Chekoy in the Burmha, or Vizier in the Persian game, except that they are confined to the limits of the fort with the Choohong.

THE two pieces, No. 3. 3. erroneously named Mandarins by Mr. Irwin, are called Tchong by the Chinese, which means an elephant; and they have precisely the same moves and powers as the elephant in the Persian and modern Hindoostanee game: That is, they move diagonally in advance or retrograde, always two steps at a move: but the Chinese Tchong has not the power of jumping over the head of an intermediate piece, as the Persian elephant does; neither can it advance beyond the limits of its own fection, for a reason I shall assign below.

THE two pieces, No. 4. 4. are called Mái by the Chinese, meaning horse, or cavalry; they have pre-cisely the same moves and powers as in the English and Persian games, and can advance into the enemy's section.

THE two pieces, No. 5. 5. are called Tche by the Chinese, meaning war chariots, and have the same powers and moves as the rooks or castles in the European game, advancing also into the enemy's section.

THE two pieces, No. 6. 6. are called Page by the Chinese, meaning artillery, or rocket-men. Pago can move the whole range of both sections direct, transverse, or retrograde, like the English castle; and if any of the adversary's pieces or pawns intervene in the direct line, he takes the one immediately in the rear of it.

THE pawns, No. 7. 7. 7. 7. are called *Ping* by the Chinese, meaning foot soldiers; they move one square or step at a time, direct in advance, and take their their antagonist transversely to the right or left, (not diagonally, as ours do;) nor have they the advantage of obtaining an advance rank, as in the English game.

The blank space in the Table 8. 8. is called Hoa ki by the Chinese, which literally means a trench, and is understood to have been made for desence against an invading army. The horses, chariots, and foot soldiers, are supposed to cross it by means of light bridges of planks; but these not being adequate to bear the bulk of the elephants, they are reciprocally obliged to remain within the limits of their respective sections.

In other respects, the game is like the English one, and ends with destroying the forces on either side, or blocking up the *Choohong*. The board is not chequered black and white, but merely subdivided, as in the diagram: the pieces are round counters of wood or ivory, with the distinguishing names wrote on them, half dyed red, and half black.

Account of the Burmha Game of Chess. TABLE.

S

ATPIRINCES,

 The Burmha name for the game of chess, is Chittha-reen, a term applied by them either to a generalissimo, or warfare: an etymologist, perhaps, might trace it as a corruption of the Sanscrit Cha-tur-anga.

THE annexed drawing and diagram, will best explain the form of the pieces, &c. and ordinary array

of the battalia.

No. 1. Ming, or the king, has the same moves and powers as in the English game, except that he cannot castle; neither do they admit of what we call stale-mate.

No. 2. Chekoy, or sub-general; he moves diagonally either way, in advance or retrograde, but limited to one check or step at a move.

No. 3. 3. Rutha, war chariot; they have exactly the same moves and powers as the English castle or

rook.

No. 4. 4. Chein, elephants; they have five distinct moves; direct 1. diagonal in advance 2. diagonal retrograde 2. but limited to one check or step at a move: they slay diagonally only: they move direct in advance, being only intended to alter the line of their operations, so that they may occasionally have the powers of our king's or queen's bishop.

No. 5. 5. Mhee, cavalry; they have exactly the

same moves and powers as in the English game.

No. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. Yein, or foot foldiers; they have the same moves and powers as in the English game, except that they are limited to one check or step at a move, and that the right-handed pieces only are susceptible of promotion to the rank of chekoy, (in the event of his being taken.) It is not necessary for this promotion, that they should have advanced to the last row of the adversary's checks, but to that check which is in a diagonal line with the lest-hand check in the last row of the adversary's section; consequently the right-hand pawn, or yein, according to the diagram, will have to advance sour steps to obtain the rank of chekoy; the 2d yein three

steps; the 3d yein, 2 steps; the 4th yein, 2 steps; and the 5th yein, 1 step.

ALTHOUGH the array of the battalia is generally as in the diagram, yet the Burmhas admit of great variations, each party being allowed to arrange their pieces ad libitum; that is to fay, they may strengthen either wing, or expose the king, according as they estimate each others abilities, or as caprice or judgment may influence them. In some respects, this is tantamount to our giving a piece to an inferior player; but the variation is only to be understood of the pieces, and not of the pawns.

This liberty, added to the names and powers of the pieces, gives the Burmha game more the appearance of a real battle than any other game I know of. The powers of the Chein are well calculated for the defence of each other, and the King, where most vulnerable; and the Rut'ha, or war chariots, are certainly more analogous to an active state of warfare than rooks or castles.

Persian and modern Hindoostance Game of Chess.

TABLE.

	5	4	3	×	\times	3	4	5	
ſ	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
ľ							.—		
1									
ľ									
I									
	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
İ	5	4	3	×	区	3	4	5	ŀ

REFERENCES.

Sha, or Padsha, The King.
Vizier, or Fuz, General.
Shi, or Hust, Elephant.
Asp, or Ghora, Cavalry or Horse
Rookh, or Ruth, War Chariot.
6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6, Piadah, or footmen.

THE Persian game and table are both called Shatrang, or, more commonly, Shutrunj, the form of the table and arrangement of the pieces as in the diagram.

No. 1. Sha, or Padsha. The king has the same moves and powers as in the English game, but can-

not castle; nor is stale-mate admitted.

No. 2. Firz, or, more commonly, Vizier, the general. It is the first piece moved on opening the game, advancing one step direct in front, his piadah moving one step at the same time; this is said to be done by command of the king, that he may review and regulate the motions of the army: afterwards he can only move diagonally, in advance or retrograde, one check or step at a move, the same as the Burmha chekoy.

No. 3. 3. Fil in Periic, Hust in Hindoostance, elephants. They move diagonally in advance or retrograde, always two steps at a move, and have, what Mr. Irwin calls, the motion of a rocket-boy hopping over the head of any piece in their way, except the king, and taking any piece which stands on the se-cond check from them in their range.

No. 4. 4. Asp, Persian, or Ghora, Hindoostanee, horse, or cavalry; they have the same moves and

powers as the English knight.

No. 5. 5. Rookh, Persian, or Ruth, Hindoostance, war chariots; they have exactly the same moves and

powers as the English rook or castle.

No. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. Piadahs, or peons, footmen; they have the same moves and powers as the English pawn, except that they advance only one step at a time on opening the game, and that when any of them arrive at the last line of checks on their adversary's section, should their own general have been taken, they are then called firz, and distinguished by a pawn of the adversary being placed on the same square with them.

WHEN the king is checked by another piece, they

fay

fay shah, shah, or kist, (the latter an Arabic word;) and when check-mated, they say shah-mat, which means the king is conquered, or driven to the last distress; or sometimes board, or burd, the prize is gained or carried; though this expression is more generally used when all the pieces are taken except the king, and the game is consequently won.

I SHALL now make some observations on the fore-

going games, and compare them with each other.

As far as record is to be admitted in evidence, the first, or *Hindoo* game, above described, is the most ancient; and, to my apprehension, it has great internal marks of antiquity, namely, the impersections incident to rudimental science.

A VIEW of the table, &c. will be sufficient to convince any one who has the least knowledge of tactics, or the science of chess, of the imperfections of

the Hindoo game.

THE weakest flank of each army is opposed to its antagonist's fort; and the piece in each army, which would be of most use on the slanks, is placed in a fituation where its operations are cramped; and although it appears that two armies are allied against the other two, yet the inconvenience of their battalia in a great measure remains: besides, it also appears that each separate army has to guard against the treachery of its ally, as well as against the common enemy; for it is recommended, and allowed, to either of the kings, to seize on the throne of his ally, that he may obtain complete command of both armies, and profecute conquest for himself alone. But if the battalia were as perfect as in the European game, the circumstance of using dice to determine the moves, is fatal to the claim of pre-eminence, or of science, which attaches to the European game, and places the ancient Hindoo game on a level with back-gammon, in which we often see the most confummate abilities deseated by chance. Exclusive

Exclusive of the definition of the game in the Amaracosha, namely, that the four angas, or members, are elephants, horses, chariots, and foot foldiers, there are contradictions in the rules given by Gotoma, and others, translated by Rad-ha-cant, which are irreconcileable, unless we suppose they treat of different games. The first fays, that "The king, the elephant, and the horse, may slay the foe, but cannot expose themselves to be slain." Hence we infer that the ship and foot soldier alone are vulnerable. In another place, the commentator fays, "If a pawn can march to any square on the oppofite extremity of the board, except that of the king or ship, he assumes whatever power belonged to that square, which promotion is called shat-pada, or fix This contradicts the former rule. And again, "but this privilege of shat-pada was not allowable in the opinion of Gotoma, when a player had three pawns on the chefs-board; but when only one pawn, and one ship, remained, the pawn might even advance to the square of a king or ship, and assume the power of either." From the whole we may gather, that in this game there is much abstruseness with little science, which affords strong prefumption of its being rudimental.

I HAVE placed the Chinese game the second in the series, because there is a record of its relative antiquity; but not from conviction, for the next improvement of the ancient Hindoo game appears to me to be that which at present obtains amongst the Burmhas, who are Hindoos of the Pali tribe, and derive all their literature and science from the common source. * In the Burmha game, the first dawn

^{*} The chess men I had made at Amarapoorab, the Burmha capital, were the workmanship of some Cossays, natives of the kingdom of Munipore, who, as well as the Burmhas, are of the sect of Budday and form the intermediate link between them and the Bengallies.

of perfection appears, while the ancient Hindoo names, according to the Amaracosha, are retained, the two armies are consolidated, and commanded by a general immediately under the eye of the king, the order of the battalia improved, and chance re-

jected.

THE Persian game is but a slight variation in principle from the Burmha: the order of battle is restrained to one mode, and the foot soldiers, an principals, each drawn up at the extreme face of the board, or field of battle, in rank entire, according to the improved system of modern warfare. Other alterations appear to me adventitious, or the essect of caprice rather than judgment.

The modern European game appears an improvement on the Persian, and only requires that the original names should be restored to the pieces, to give

it full claim to pre-eminence.

I AM at a loss where to place the Chinese game, but it claims to precedence are of little importance.

THE account of its invention, for which we are

indebted to Mr. Eyles Irwin, is as follows.

or Chinese Annals, respecting the invention of the game of Chess, delivered to me by Tonqua, a soldier

mandarin of the province of Tokien."

"THREE hundred and seventy years after the time of Consucius, or 1965 years ago, (174 years before Christ,) Hung Cochee, king of Kiangnan, sent an expedition into the Shensi country, under the command of a mandarin called Hemsing, to conquer it. After one successful campaign, the soldiers were put into winter quarters, where finding the weather much colder than what they had been accustomed to,* and being also deprived of their wives and families, Vol. VII.

^{*} Shensi is the north-west province of China, and mountainous.

the army in general became impatient of their fituation, and clamorous to return home. Hemfing, upon this, revolved in his mind the bad consequences of complying with their wishes; and the necessity of foothing his troops, and reconciling them to their position, appeared urgent, in order to finish his operations the ensuing year. He was a man of genius, as well as a good foldier, and having contemplated fome time on the subject, he invented the game of chess, as well for an amusement to his men in their vacant hours, as to inflame their military ardour, the game being wholly founded on the principles of war. The stratagem succeeded to his wish; the foldiery were delighted with the game, and forgot, in their daily contests for victory, the inconvenience of their post. In the spring, the general took the field again, and in a few months added the rich. country of Shensi to the kingdom of Kiangnan, by the defeat and capture of Choupayen, a famous war-rior among the Chinese. On this conquest, Hung-Cochee affumed the title of Emperor, and Choupayen put an end to his own life in despair."

In the course of my reading, I have met with a similar tale among the Persians; but such tales are easily fabricated, and, from the compliance of na-

tional vanity, as easily credited.

THAT Hemsing introduced this game, with modifications suited to the genius and manners of the Chinese, for the purposes ascribed above, I can readily believe; but the introduction of artillery, or rocket-boys, the general perfection of the game, similitude to the Hindoo game, and date of the supposed invention, are strong evidences against its originality.

I AM aware that there are many other games of chefs played in Asia; but I consider them merely as anomalies, unimportant, or unworthy of note; and

the four I have adduced are the principal, to which all the others may be referred.

I SHALL conclude this long and irregular differtation, with noticing the various etymologies of the

terms, pieces, &c. &c.

THE Honourable Mr. Daines Barrington has taken considerable pains on this subject in the essay above noticed; and the reason he assigns for the uncouth form of the pieces, as made in Europe, is very just, viz. that we received the game from the Arabs, who, as Mahommedans, being prohibited the use of paintings, or engraved images, merely gave to their chess pieces such distinct forms as enabled them to readily recognize them in play; and such arbitrary variation being once introduced, others naturally followed, according to the caprice or taste of each new innovator.

Jones, in respect to our Exchequer being named from the chess-table, proving that the term was not directly so derived; but that is not proving it was not derived indirectly; for, although the game of chess might not have been known to the nations of modern Europe so early as the Norman Conquest, yet it appears from the check or reckoning board found at *Pompeii*, and from the Latin name Scaccario, that the use of the table was very early known in Europe; and therefore Sir William Jones may still be right in deriving Exchequer from Chaturunga. One remarkable coincidence in the Asiatic tables may be noticed; they are all subdivided into sixty-four squares, but not checkered.

THE piece we call the King, is also so styled in all the games that I know, except the Chinese, who call

it the Choohong, or scientific in war.

THE piece we call the Queen, the Honourable Mr. K k 2 Barrington

Barrington derives from the Persian pherz, or general; and exposes the absurdity of calling this piece a queen, by asking how we are to metamorphose a foot soldier, or pawn, into a queen, as admitted in the English game, &c. Sir William Jones more correctly writes it ferz, and adds, "Hence the French have derived vierge, &c." If so, the blunder arises from French gallantry, Vierge, in French, is virgo, and conforted with the king, they, by a very natural transition, made their virgin a queen. But whence the Persian title of ferz? Mr. Richardson merely informs us, that ferz, ferzeen, ferzan, and ferzee, mean the queen at chess. The common term for this piece in the Persian language, is vizeer, ouzeer, a minister; but, in their emphatic way of writing and speaking, they have, in this case, made a noun substantive of a distinctive adjective, to denote the eminence of the piece, as I shall have further occasion to notice. Ferz, or ferzan, therefore. neither means queen, nor general, in a literal sense, but eminent, distinguished, &c. Ferzee surther means science, learning, wisdom, &c.

The piece we call a Castle, or Rook, the Honourable Mr. Barrington says, is derived from the Italian il rocco; but what is il rocco (the castle) derived from? Sir William Jones says, "It were in vain to seek an etymology of the word rookh in the modern Persian language, for in all the passages extracted from Ferdausi and Jami, where Rookh is conceived to mean a hero, or a sabulous bird, it signifies, I believe, no more than a cheek or face." My enquiries teach me that, in this instance also, a name has been formed from a quality; and that, in modern Persian, rookh means sacing or bearing in a direct line; and applied to the rookh at chess, and its moves, is very appropriate: at the same time I have no doubt

that

that the Persian word was originally derived with the game from the Hindoos, who call the piece rot'h, and rut'ha, and denominate the ship, or boat, which is substituted for the castle, either naucâ, or rôca. The corruption is as easy as the French vierge from pherz or ferz; and the only difference is, that Persian pride has endeavoured to legitimise the blunder, by assigning a reason for it.

The pieces we call Bishops, the Hon. Mr. Daines Barrington says, are called by the French fou, or fools, and supposes the epithet to have been bestowed on them by some wag, because kings and queens were

anciently attended by fools.

I AM ready to admit, that war is but too often the offspring of vice and folly, and that it is no great proof of wildom in bishops, to forsake their habits of peace for war, but think it is refining a little too much, to stigmatise them in particular as fools on that account. Sir William Jones, in my opinion, adduces a more legitimate derivation, supposing the fol, or fou, of the French (for it is pronounced both ways occasionally) to be derived from the Persian fil, or feel, an elephant. In Italian, these pieces are still denominated il alfino, or the elephant, and fo they were in England at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Perhaps the French fou may have been derived from the Chinese fou, the grave councillors who attend on the chooking, or general, and who have the same diagonal moves as the bishops; and their mandarin caps may have been changed with their names for mitres, as we now fee them engraved.

THE pieces we call Knights, or Horses, have, in

general, the same appellation in other languages.

THE Pawns, it is easy to perceive, are derived from paon, (a foot,) Hindoostance; piadah, Persian; and padati, Sanscrit.

THE learned Doctor Hyde says, "That the word Chess is derived from the Persian word shah, or K k 3 king,

king, which word is often used in playing, to caution the king against danger. Hence Europeans, and others, have denominated the game Shachiludium, and Shailudium; and the English, Chess."

THE term Mate, used at the termination of the game, is from the Persian shah-mat; the king is con-

quered, or driven to the last distress.

The Persians also have a term peculiar to themfelves, to denote the advancement of a pawn, or piada. When it arrives at the last line of checks in the adversary's division, they say it is ferzeen, or distinguished; and in case the vizeer, or ferz, has been lost, it assumes its rank, and is distinguished by one of the adversary's pawns being placed on the same square with it.

WHEN I fat down to vrite this letter, I had no idea of extending it to fo great a length; nor had I, as you will easily perceive, formed any regular plan of discussion. I therefore fear it will not only be found tedious, but perplexed. Yet, however imperfect or unimportant in itself, I am induced to hope it will be received with indulgence, as tending to excite the inquiries of abler critics on a subject equally interesting and curious, and to produce that collision of mind whence truth is elicited.

I have the honour to remain,

Dear Sir,

Your obliged and faithful Servant,

HIRAM COX.

Wayjea Province of Chittagong, May 28th, 1799.

P. S. I HAVE annexed a comparative Table of the names and terms used at the game of Chess in sour principal Asiatic, and sour principal European languages.

H. COX.

COMPARATIVE TABLE of Terms used at the Game of Chefs, in Four principal Asiatic and Four principal European Languages.

Erglith.	French.	Italian-	German	Scok it.	Persian.	Chinc fe.	- e out ing
							•
Chefs.	E'checa,	Scacchi,	scachkfpiel,	Chaturanga, Chaturaji, Shutrang, Shatranj, Choke Choohongki, Chit-tharein.	Shutrang, Shatranj,	Choke Choohongki,	Chit-tharein.
	Roi,	Ré,	Koenig,	Raja,	Sháh, Pádíháh,	Choohong, (Gene. Meng.	Meng.
Queen,	Д атс,	Regina, Dame,	Koenigin, Dame,	Koenigin, Dame, Mantii (A) (Prime Vizir, Ferz, Ferzi, Sou, (Couniellors) Chekoy.	Vizír, Ferz, Ferzí,	Sou, (Counfellor,)	Chekoy. (General.)
Bithop, Fou, Knight, Cavalier,	Fou, Cavalier, Tour Roi,	Alfino, Springe: Cavaliere, Cavallo, Ritter, Rocco,	Springer, Ritter, Slephant, Roche,	Springer, Hafti, Pilu, Eleph int, Fil Pi (Elephant,) Tchong, (Elephant,) Chein, (Elephant,) Ritter, Aiwa, (Hoife,) Afp Feres, (Horfe,) Mái, (Hoife,) Mhee, (Cavalry) Siephant, Roche, Rat, ha, (a Car) Nau F. sh, Tche, (War Chariot) Rut, ha, (War Chariot)	Fil Pi (Elephant,) Afp Feres, (Horfe,) R .sh,	Tchong, (Elephant,) Mái, (Horfe,) Tche, (War Chariot)	Chein, (Elephinic,) Mhee, (Cavalry) Rutha, (War Char
	, eci	Pedona.	Baur,	ca, or Roc., (2 Ship or Boat.) Padan, P. isc., (F. ot Peadah, Bidek,	Peadah, Bidek,	Paoo, (Artillery,)	P200, (Artillery,) Yein, (FootSoldiers.)
Pawn,	Echec au Roi, Caccoral Re,		Schach,	Soldier,)	Sheh, Kift, kiftt, B.	Sheh, Kifh, kisht, B. Ping, Foot Soldiers, Kwai.	Kwai.
nate, or	E'chec et mat,	Scarco Matto,	Schach matt.		Mát, Sheh mát,		Shoombe.
mate.	Mat.						. G. A. C. Orthography.

A. This piece is not used in the game of Chaturaji, described in the preceding paper; but is mentioned in Sanscrit books as one of the pieces of the Chatu. N. P. The Sanscrit and Persian Terms in this Table are expressed according to Sir W. Jones's System of Orthograpi

ranga: the true game of Cheis.

B. I here terms are more generally used than those stated in page 501, in which, by atypographical error, sab has been repeated for school, its synonyme. On B. I here terms are more generally used than those stated in page 501, in which, by atypographical error, sab has been repeated for school, its synonyme. On the term used for school, appears to be kish, for the authority of an Arabic dictionary, the term Kish was mentioned as of Arabic origin. But, on further inquiry, the term used for school by the term kish, and the school because the authority of an Arabic dictionary, the term Kish was mentioned as of Arabic origin. But, on further inquiry, the term used for school because the authority of an Arabic dictionary. Kib; ; for the origin and meaning of which, fee the Dictionary of Mannary, or RICHARDSON. Note referred to in page 484, and Corrections of previous Papers in this Volume, by H. Cole-BROOKE, Esq.

The term (naucá) which occurs in the passage translated by Siz WILLIAM JONES from the Bhawishya Purán, undoubtedly signifies a boat, and has no other acceptation. The four members of an army, as explained in the Amara cosha, certainly are elephants, horses, chariots, and infantry. Yet there is no room to suspect a mistake in the translation; on the contrary, the practice of the game called Chatúrájí, confirms the translation; for a boat, not a chariot, is one of the pieces, and the game is played by four persons with long dice. Another sort of Chaturanga, the same with the Persian and the Hindustánì chess, is played by two persons, and without dice. In Bergal, a boat is one of the pieces at this game likewise; but in some parts of India, a camel takes the place of the bishop, and an elephant that of the rook; while the Hindus of the Peninsula (I mean those of Carnátaca above the Gháts) preserve, as I am informed, the chariot among the pieces of the game. I find also, in an ancient Treatise of Law, the elephant, horse, and chariot, mentioned as pieces of the game of Chaturanga. The substitution of a camel, or of a boat, for the chariot, is probably an innovation; but there is no reason for thence inferring a mistake in the translation, or in the reading, of the passage which Sin WILLIAM JONES extracted from the Bawishya Purán.

CORRECTION.

Page 180, Note (3). Sácambharí in the modern Sámbher, famous for its salt lakes. It is situated at the distance of about thirty miles west of Jeypúr.

MEMBERS

OF THE

ASIATICK SOCIETY.

1802.

PATRONS.

His Excellency the Most Noble RICHARD Marquis WELLESLEY, K. P. Gove. for General, &c. &c. &c.

Lieut. Gen. Gerard Lake, Commander in Chief, &c. &c.
George Hilaro Barlow, Esq.
George Udny, Esq.

Members of the Supreme Council.

PRESIDENT.

The Hon. Sir John Anstruther, Bart.

First Vice President, John Fleming, Esq.

Second Vice President, John Herbert Harington, Esq.

The Hon. Sir John Royds, Knt. William Roxburgh, M. D. James Dinwiddie, Ll. D. Major R. H. Colebrooke, John Gilchrist, Esq. H. P. Foster, Esq. Samuel Davis, Esq., John Farquhar, Esq. H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

Committee of Papers, with the President. Vice Presidents, and Secretary.

Treasurer, HENRY TRAIL, Esq. Secretary, Robert Home, Esq.

MEMBERS.

A.
Anderson, Dr. James
Anderson, David, Esq.
Anderson, Lieut. James
Anster, Richard, Esq.

B.
Baillie, L. Lieut. Col.
Balfour, Francis, M. D.
Balmain, W. Esq.
Bebb, John, Esq.

Belli, John, Esq. Bell, Rev. Dr. J. Berry, Andrew, M. D. Beyer, Dr. A. Bentley, John, Esq. Biddulph, Robert, Esq. Birch, R. C. Esq. Blake, Robert, Esq. Blaquiere, W. Coates, Esq. Blunt, Sir Charles W. Bart. Elunt, Capt. James Boag, William, Esq. Boddam, R. H. Esq. Boddam, Charles, Esq. Boileau, Thomas, Esq. Bowden, Major Joseph, Boyd, George, Esq. Bristow, John, Esq. Brooke, Thomas, Esq. Broome, Ralph, Esq. Brown, Rev. D. Bruce, Hon. C. A. Buchanan, Francis, M Burroughs, William, Esq. Burton, Capt. W.

C.

Campbell, Alexander, M. D. Carnac, James, Esq. Carrington, Sir C. Ed. Knt. Casement, Thomas, Esq. Chambers, Sir Robert, Knt. Champion, Joseph, Esq. Chapman, Charles, Esq. Cockrane, Hon. John Collins, Col. John Colebrooke, Henry, Esq. Coote, Chidley, Esq. Cowper, William, Esq. Crisp, Burrish, Esq. Crisp, John, Esq.

D.

Daniell, Thomas, Esq. Devis, William, A. Esq. Dickens, John, Esq. Dowdeswell, George, Esq. Duncan, Hon Jonathan

E.

Edmonstone, N. B. Esq. Eliot, John, Esq. Ewer, Walter, Esq.

F.

Farquharson, William, Esq. Fichtel, Leopold, Esq. Fontana, Nicholas, Esq. Fowke, Francis, Esq. Francklin, Capt. W. Fraser, Major Charles Faglsang, Rev. N. S. Fullarton, Maj. Gen. John

G.

Gladwin, Francis, Esq. Goldingham, J. Esq. Goodlad, Richard, Esq. Gordon, Lieut. Col. H. M. Graham, Thomas, Esq. Grant, Charles, Esq. Grant, James, Esq. Green, Col. Christ. Garstin, Lieut. Col. Goodwin, R. T. Esq.

H.

Haldane, Major Henry Hamilton, Alexander, Esq. Hare, James, M. D. Hare James, jun. M. D. Hardwicke, Capt. Thomas Harris Herbert, Esq. Hart, W. Esq. Hastings, Warren, Esq. Hawkins, Francis, Esq. Heyne, Benjamin, M. D. Hewett, W. N. W. Esq. Hopkins, D. Esq. Horsley, Francis, Esq. Howison, James, Esq. Humphreys, Osias, Esq. Hunter, Hunter, John, Esq. Hunter, William, Esq. Hodgson, Henry, Esq.

I.

Irwin, James, Esq. Johnson, Richard, Esq.

K.

Kennaway, Sir John, Bart. Kennaway, Richard, Esq. Kirkpatrick, Lieut. Col. W. Kyd, Lieut. Col. Alex. Kelso, A. H. Esq.

L.

Lambton, Capt. William Law, Thomas, Esq. Lee, Rev. Francis, A. M. Lloyd, Lient. Col. Herbert Lloyd, Charles, Esq. Lovett, J. H. Esq.

M.

Macaulay, Capt. Colin Macdonald, Lieut. Alex. M'Dougal, Lieut. William Macgregor, Capt. Robert Mackenzie, Capt. Colin Macklew, Andrew, Esq. Macnabb, Donald, Esq. Macnaghten, Francis, Esq. M'Pherson, Sir John, Bart. Malcolm, Capt. John Malet. Sir C. Ware, Bart. Marsden, William, Esq. Marsh, Bartholomew, Esq. Mercer, Grænic, Esq. Middleton, Nathaniel, Esq. Morris, Edmund, Esq. Murray, Sir John, Bart. Murray, Lieut. Col. Peter Myers, Thomas, Esq.

N.

North, Hon. Frederick

0.

Ouseley, Gore, Esq.

P.

Palmer, Col. William Paterson, J. David, Esq. Paterson, Col. Parry, George, Esq.

R.

Raban, Thomas, Esq.
Ramus, Henry, Esq.
Rawlins, John, Esq.
Richardson, Capt. David T.
Richardson, Henry, Esq.
Roberts, Col. R. E.
Robertson, Capt. George
Robertson, Capt. Thomas
Ross, James, Esq.
Rothman, Charles, Esq.
Russel, Alexander, Esq.
Lussel, Hon. Sir H. Knt.
Riven, James, Esq.

S.

Saunders, Robert, Esq.
Scott, Lieut. Col. William
Scott, Major John
Scott, Helenus, Esq.
Scott, Lieut. Col. Richard
Scott, Thomas, Esq.
Seton, Daniel, Esq.
Shoolbred, John, Esq.
Sloper, Gen. Sir Robert, K. B.
Speke, Peter, Esq.
Stuart. James, Esq.
Symes, Lieut. Col. Michael
Sydenham, Capt. Benjamin

Τ.

Taylor, John, Esq.
Teignmouth, Rt. Hon. Lord
Teinnant, Rev. William
Tetsing, Isaac, Esq.
Tucker, H. St. Geo. Esq.
Turner, Capt. Samuel

w.

W.
Wade, John Peter, M. D.
Warren, Lieut. J.
Wilford, Capt. Francis
Wilkins, Charles, Esq.
Williams, John Lloyd, Esq.
Woodburne, Col. David
Worsley, Capt. Henry
Z.
Zoffany, John, Esq.

Honorary Members.
M. Carpentier de Cossigny
M. Le Géntil
Rev. Dr. John
Mr. Henry J. Le Beck
Rev. Thomas Maurice
M. Volney
Capt. R. D. Daldorff
Major Sir Wilham Ouseley
L. D. Campbell, Esq.

MATE WE'T BE CALCUTTA